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ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

*The FESTIVAL of INDEPENDENCE
in Connecticut. By a Traveller; in
a Letter to his Friend.*

YOU are reasonably curious as to the political and religious festivals of this people, and one has just occurred, which I shall endeavour to describe to you. * The day on which the independence of this nation upon England was announced, has, ever since, been celebrated as a great and momentous æra. Laws, and public and official records, are always dated from this æra, as well as from the christian; but in private transactions it is not noticed. That it is not in general use, and that it has not entirely excluded the *Anno Domini*, has been a topic of regret with some; but this regret seems to be absurd. It is true, perhaps, that the use of the christian æra is enforced by no religious sanction, that the revolutionary period is capable of being strictly ascertained, and that every expedient for keeping alive the ideas of national unity and sovereignty, is useful; but it is to be feared, that the benefits of this expedient would be

outweighed by the evils. Since it would be confined to themselves, it would introduce some degree of confusion into the transactions between individuals of different nations; and it is, at best, but a wretched method of maintaining political virtue. Names and dates are a very inadequate basis on which to build the love of liberty and country. Besides, if there be any political influence in dates, there must, for similar reasons, be a religious tendency, and the christian æra must therefore be as dear to the devout man, as that of independence is to the patriot.

In this State* there is no political festival, that has relation to the nation in general, but this. The governor, or chief magistrate, is annually elected by the people, on a fixed day, and this day is solemnized with much pomp. This election is ascertained and recognized by the legislative body, which meets on the same day at Hartford; and though it be an holy-day throughout the State, it is not accompanied with particular processions or solemnities any where but at Hartford.

Independence, on the contrary, is celebrated in all the towns much in the same manner. All labour is suspended, and schools and colleges shut up. Every mind is bent upon the great political topic which chances to occur at the time. At present, every one is busy in accusing or defending the French, and the ideas of their revolutionary efforts against Britain, are supposed to be intimately blended with any controversy or embarrassment at present existing with any foreign country. As this festival has just passed in this town, I shall endeavour to give you an account of it.

As the fourth of July approached, conversation began insensibly to turn upon the proper method of proceeding on that day. In some towns a meeting of the citizens is convened by the *select men*, and matters are adjusted with the same formalities as take place in the exercise of any political function. Here, however, the principal people met together without ceremony. A public dinner is usual on this occasion, and a committee was named to settle the time, place, and other circumstances of the feast.

This committee proceeded to bespeak a dinner of the keeper of the chief inn or tavern in the place, for as many persons as were likely to attend. There being no apartment large enough to accommodate the guests, they pitched upon a field near the inn, that was level and free from bushes. The rays of a vertical sun, which, in this climate and at this season, are intensely hot; and an hail or thunder storm, which frequently occurs, with tremendous violence, were evils to be boldly hazarded and cheerfully sustained. The former was, indeed, somewhat precluded by a temporary shelter of oak-boughs, laid across a frame of wood, erected for the purpose, and forming a canopy over the dining table.

A person is then selected to invite the guests, with a list of which he is furnished. Some distinctions are of course made in the framing of this list, as to the education, property, and especially the political opinions of the guests. Fewer political divisions exist, at present, in this State than in any other; but some, nevertheless, exist; and the minor party assembled and feasted by themselves. No menaces, or other proofs of opposition, were given.

But though invitations are thus formally given, every one is supposed to be entitled to a seat, and no objection will be made if he behave decently, and comply with the forms prescribed. His attendance and compliance with these forms, are tests of his principles, and ascertain the party to which he will afterward be considered as belonging.

This committee selects one or two of its members, most noted for sagacity and the soundness of their politics, to form a catalogue of *toasts*. A *toast* is the name of some distinguished partizan or officer of government, whose creed and conduct is approved by the meeting, or some apothegm or epigrammatic sentence, in which praise or censure of persons and opinions is conveyed with all possible brevity and smartness. This mode is not without advantages. It affords a pretty good criterion of opinion, it allows scope for ingenuity and wit; the toast is formally delivered by him that sits at the head of the table, and is loudly repeated by the rest, who complete the ceremony by swallowing a glass of wine. At each toast, one or more discharges of a gun take place, and sometimes it is followed by loud and repeated huzzas. The number of these huzzas, or *cheers*, frequently amounts to nine, the number being commensurate with the zeal.

Toasts, however, are not the only intellectual part of the festival. The committee turn their eyes every where in search of one whose education and profession qualify him for adorning the occasion with a speech. The choice usually falls upon an *advocate*; whose occupation gains him respect; who has occupied some post in the government, or a seat in the legislature; who is endowed with talents for haranguing, and whose political creed is well known. In this town, indeed, the orator chanced to be of no profession, but is extensively known as a man of genius and a poet.

This oration is commonly delivered in a church, on a temporary platform, the pulpit being occupied by the clergyman, who precedes the orator in a short prayer. In some towns it is also accompanied with vocal music. The form of a procession was fixed, and the citizens assembled in the courthouse, at an early hour, in the morning. Thence they proceeded to the church, the *orator of the day* being distinguished by a conspicuous place in the procession.

In the cities and chief towns of the United States, this show is, in a great degree, military. All the companies of volunteer horse and foot, are drawn out, and, after performing the customary evolutions, form a part of this procession, and of the audience of the speaker. These volunteers, being persons of the higher and more opulent ranks, are equipped in the most gorgeous and expensive manner. Each troop and company has an uniform and banner peculiar to itself. The flag is sometimes fashioned and embroidered by some lady, who manifests, in this manner, her zeal in the public cause. The uniforms dazzle you with their splendour, and variety, and costliness.

Here there was no military parade,

and the only noise that was made, was by a pair of *six or eight-pounders*, drawn from a vessel in the harbour, and placed near the scene of festivity. These were discharged at sunrise, and at stated intervals during the procession, the speech, and the banquet.

The oration is seldom without merit in reasoning and composition. As it is composed by the ablest writer and speaker in the community; as it states, at once, the popular opinion and the arguments on which that opinion is founded, it will be deemed by you a very curious monument. It will somewhat enable you to estimate the manners, language, and taste, the modes of reasoning and deciding, that are current in this extraordinary nation. I shall furnish you with copies of all the speeches that I can procure. These will enable you to judge for yourself, and save me the trouble of commenting on them.

It is customary for the audience to request a copy of the speech for publication. Hence it is read and reviewed by those who were at a distance at the time it was pronounced, and the impression made upon the hearers is revived and enforced. You will not fail to remark that, in one respect, these harangues are considerably uniform. They all turn upon the present condition of the country in relation to France, and breathe the utmost animosity towards the speculative creeds, as well as the practical deductions of Parisian philosophers and politicians.

The banquet, on this occasion, was marred by no intemperance of the elements. The air was neither stagnant, nor hazy, nor beclouded, nor did the wind come from a sultry quarter. The weather, at this season, is wonderfully capricious and diversified. Two days, both of which shall be free from clouds and mists, shall produce opposite effects.

on the constitution, though their effects on the thermometer shall be nearly the same. One shall produce sensations of intolerable languor. The sun-shine shall make every pore overflow, and annihilate the whole strength, and the shade shall scarcely afford any relief. The next day will be inexpressibly serene and bright, yet no one is incommoded by the heat. To wear the thickest clothes, or no clothes at all, is equally convenient. The sun has no scorching influence, and does not enfeeble us, while the shade of a roof or a grove is salubrious and delicious. Fortunately, the day of this festival was of the latter kind.

The banquet was conducted with the utmost decorum and propriety. Among some hundreds of guests, not a single person was rude, boisterous, or drunken, and the company entirely dispersed in two hours after their assembling. The smallest domestic circle could not have proceeded with more cheerfulness or less disorder. Twenty toasts were given, and each was accompanied by a glass, but the riotous folly of enjoining a bumper at each toast was unknown. A few songs, all of which were political in their tendency and cast, were sung by good voices. The popular ballads are, at present, replete with allusions to the state of Europe, and with sentiments of hatred to the French.

The females had no part in this celebration. They neither appeared in the procession nor at the banquet. Custom, however, has introduced them into the catalogue of toasts; but, indeed, in a way little honourable to them as political or rational beings. Some allusion was made to their skill in household affairs, and to their power of rewarding *soldiers* by their *smiles*. This you will esteem no trifling incident, and will account it, in no small de-

gree, descriptive of the reigning manners.

The usual fault of travellers, is to build too large inferences on the facts which they observe. I should be guilty of this fault if I allowed you to imagine that this festival is always celebrated in Connecticut without riot or debauchery. In some places, likewise, the banquet has been shared by both sexes, and in others they have separately assembled. The females have even been harangued, in one instance, by one of their own sex; and a speech of this female orator has been published in the news-papers. Excess has hitherto most commonly attended these banquetings, and the presence of women has been thought necessary to secure the reign of moderation and decorum.

This state is about as extensive, though much less populous, than Yorkshire. It is divided into eight counties, in the chief town of which, a procession has been made, and a banquet been shared. Guns have ushered in and dismissed the day, ballads have been sung, and toasts have been drank. In most of them, an oration has been pronounced, and afterwards published. The minuter incidents have differed, there being more or less of solemnity; fewer or more numerous actors and spectators in one county than another, but the chief incidents have been similar. L.

On the STYLE of GIBBON.

Mr. Editor,

YOU have published some severe, and, as I think, unequitable strictures on the style of an English historian, who has always been a favourite of mine. The doctrines and reasonings of Edward Gibbon, his insidious attacks upon religion, his encomiums

on the apostate Julian, and his defamation of Constantine, I leave to be discussed by polemical heads, and merely feel myself inclined to stand up as the advocate of his style. I must own that the task is not easy, for your correspondent has chiefly contented himself with general assertions, and these assertions are so wild and so extravagant, that they seem incapable of any regular and argumentative confutation.

The representation made by your correspondent of the obscurity, circumlocution, incongruous transitions, and pompous phraseology of this writer, appears to be strangely unjust. I mean not to affirm that his style is without defect, and I will even acknowledge that his defects are of the kind that has been described, but that these defects pervade his whole composition, that to read his book is a toilsome and profitless undertaking, that he cannot even be understood without frequent pauses and painful efforts, are surely groundless imputations. I turn over the pages of his history, I find much energy and diction, much wisdom, and much information, compressed in a narrow compass, and, consequently, strong claims made upon my attention. I find a narrative clear and perspicuous; but since, agreeably to the writer's plan, it comprehends the events of many ages, and renders every thing subservient to the progress and decay of an immense political body, it is a succinct and general narrative. It cannot, frequently, descend to minute incidents, and, by that means, charm the attention and keep alive the passions. It is not as picturesque and circumstantial as the history of Charles XII. or the conquest of Mexico. Interest in the fortunes of a single person, or the catastrophe of a single revolution, was necessarily excluded by the nature of the plan. The fall of Rome, by be-

ing protracted through so many ages, and by flowing from such numerous and wide-spread causes, cannot be expected to take much hold of the juvenile fancy. It is the theme of calm meditation, and cannot but require a delineation very different from that which adorns the fate of a bold conspirator, or the achievements of an hardy conqueror.

Yet this can only be said of the work in general. There are portions in which the narrative, in becoming more minute, becomes more interesting. The rise of the Mahometan power, the adventures of Tancred and Lusignan, and, especially, the siege and capture of Constantinople, are stories that do not fall below the tales of Robertson and Hume, in the power to delight and instruct us.

No reasonable man will make it a question whether a writer be without blemish. This, in every human case, will be a point already granted. The only inquiry must be with regard to the nature of his defects, and the degree in which they abound. That sentences occur in the writings of Gibbon, somewhat periphrastic, that places are sometimes mentioned with their attributes, as "*the frozen Danube*," and persons denoted, not by their names, but by some local or incidental quality, as "*the son of Philip*" and "*the Mogul king*," cannot be denied. That some degree of stiffness and pomp, insuitable to the occasion, arises from this circumstance, is likewise evident; but how rarely do these blemishes occur, and how many pages might be read in succession, in which the perspicuity and elegance is undiminished from this cause?

Gibbon is more faulty in his last productions than in his first. The habit of compression increased as he continued to write. The antiquities of the house of Brunswick, is

that from which your correspondent has taken his quotation respecting Aurungzebe and Fontinelle, and was among the last of his productions. The style of this piece may, perhaps, be allowed to be affected and obscure; but the faults in which it abounds, are very sparingly scattered over the first volumes of his Roman history. In the latter, the flow of elegant and perspicuous language is very seldom interrupted or embarrassed by pompous and trite epithets, and violent transitions.

There is no criterion of excellence, by which the merit of books can be incontestibly settled. Each man must content himself with stating his own feelings and impressions. The charge brought against Gibbon, is that of being tiresome and difficult to understand,—that his work cannot be perused without labour and disgust. I do not affirm myself possessed of more sagacity than others, nor will I admit that my taste is remarkably depraved, yet there is no book which I have read with more thorough and easy comprehension of the sentiments, and more entire approbation of the style. There is great cogency of language, and more meaning is compressed into a given number of words, than is commonly to be found. Hence, though not productive of obscurity, it demands more strict attention, and we pause to meditate more frequently than if we were perusing a paragraph in a newspaper, or an episode in a novel.

The purpose of his work required him to relate military transactions in a very summary manner. The character and conduct of princes and generals, were to be exhibited in few words; since the magnitude of his plan, and the bounds of his work, forbade him to dwell with much minuteness on any individual. He is chiefly engaged in painting

manners, and unfolding the progress and revolutions of opinions. It would be absurd to expect the charms of a dramatic story, in the delineation of the juridical system of Justinian, or of the establishment of christianity in Germany and Ethiopia.

Another circumstance on which your correspondent has laid great stress, is the want of decorum in this author. Lascivious allusions, and obscene jests, are said to present themselves in almost every page; and this fault is, in his eyes, of so heinous a nature, that it cannot be compensated by learning, genius, or industry.

I cannot concur with this opinion. Unchastity in sentiment and conduct is sufficiently odious; but loading it with more censure than it merits, is equally absurd with bestowing on it less. It is, no doubt, a vile propensity, a depraver of the physical and moral constitution, and hostile to many estimable qualities. But its evil influence has limits. This influence, it is no less evident, must depend upon the degree in which this depravity exists. There is a degree of profligacy in this respect, conceivable by the fancy, and sometimes exemplified in real life, totally subversive of usefulness and virtue; but there is an infinite number of degrees, from the most flagitious to the least culpable. Many of these degrees reflect a very slight degree of guilt upon the character, and are, by no means, inconsistent, as common observation evinces, with the most illustrious and heroic qualities.

Now, in what degree is this writer culpable? We are told that indecent allusions occur in almost every page; but this is a mistake. I am not sure that they occur in every volume. At least there are series of pages, in succession, totally exempt from this blemish. These pages are replete with proofs of com-

prehensive and benevolent views, of a rigid adherence to truth, and indefatigable perseverance in pursuit of it. They teem with sublime and instructive lessons on the causes that modify the condition of the human race, and with luminous and hitherto inaccessible displays of the changes of government and manners which have formerly taken place on the surface of this globe. There are sometimes to be met with, however, specimens of indecorum; of a sportive imagination erroneously directed; of allusions which cannot, indeed, excite a smile in the chaste, but which are far from being grossly or remarkably flagitious; which have no tendency to irritate the senses or pollute the heart, or no tendency which is not infinitely over-weighed by the benefits flowing from other parts of this performance.

He must have a perverse mind whose attention, in the perusal of this book, is chiefly or strongly affected by these exceptionable passages. He cannot lay much claim to homage for the correctness of his taste and the elevation of his views, who suffers the disgust flowing from this cause, to overpower his admiration of the excellence with which it elsewhere abounds, and hinder him from reaping all the benefits which so large and so accurate a picture of *man* is adapted to convey.

As to the religious sentiments of this historian, I desire, like your correspondent, to be regarded as neutral, or, at least, as withholding my opinions. This topic may be considered by some as of most importance, and if this shall be asserted, I shall not deny it; I shall only maintain that the political and moral departments of this history, constitute by far the largest portion of it; and, on account of its intrinsic nature, as well as of the wisdom and genius displayed in it, are of inestimable value. I may like-

wise add, that numberless particulars in the history of the christian sects are, by all parties, admitted to be, not only laboriously investigated, judiciously selected, and skilfully arranged, but uncontestably true. Q.

On the STATURE of MAN.

Mr. Editor,

MUCH has been said respecting the stature of the human species, and history as well as poetry has abounded with conjectures and assertions on this subject. In many other animals, there is great variety in this respect. Shape, colour, and instincts remain the same, in cases where the bulk has varied according to the degrees of the largest scale. The moral and intellectual habits and powers of animals rise, doubtless, from their circumstances. They flow partly from the dangers and wants which externally beset them, but chiefly from their interior organization, and those faculties which grow out of the shape, and relative proportions and positions of their members. Bulk seems, of all attributes, most capricious and variable, and most consistent with intellectual uniformity.

The tyger of Sumatra, and the cat that sits upon the hearth, differ very little in shape. Their habits and powers are of the same kind. The casual influence of education has wrought a difference in their manners; but where man has not interfered, the cat of the woods is essentially the same creature, whether he inhabit the shores of the Ganges or Ohio, and whether his length be ten inches or ten feet.

There is a like resemblance between the different races of lizards. The little animal which sports in our shades, and which is a few inches in length, is near a-kin to

that which haunts the tropical rivers and lakes, and whose bulk is some hundred fold greater.

The monkey and ape species, which approach more nearly to the human, are in like manner diversified in size, without material variations in organs and habits. The creature, armed with the branch of a palm, and traversing on two legs, the forests of Luconia, and whose stature is seven feet, resembles in organization and intelligence, the diminutive being of as many inches in height, which dwells in Mexico and Brazil.

What are the limits, in this respect, prescribed by nature to animals, cannot be ascertained. We cannot number the varieties which at present exist in the unvisited regions of our globe, which have existed at former periods, and which may hereafter start into being. We cannot enumerate the causes which have exterminated any one species, or specify that coincidence of events which will give birth to a new variety. Many of these causes may have formerly operated, and may hereafter operate; and, in the indefinite revolutions of events, of changes in the constitution of the atmosphere, in the surface and productions of the globe, all the forms of animated being that now exist, may be supplanted by a new assemblage, or by an assemblage that existed at some remote period of antiquity.

The extinction of some species is testified by their remains. The disappearance of others from places which they once haunted, is recorded by historians. Man must derive his chief subsistence from the vegetable products of the soil. These he will consent to share with such animals as may be made subservient to his gratification or necessities, but the remainder he will not suffer to live. As population and culture diffuse themselves, the useless or

obnoxious animals will disappear, and no tokens of their existence will be found, except in the records of history, or in the collections of the painter.

Wolves have disappeared in England. Monkeys, which once abounded in some of the Islands of America, are no longer to be found. The war that is carried on with so much zeal in our own country against panthers and rattle-snakes, will shortly extirpate the whole species. Exterminating plagues may arise which may limit their destructive influence to some kinds of animals, and leave no trace of them behind. What may happen in future, may formerly have happened. As land and water may gradually have changed places with each other, so the classes of being that now exist may be merely successors to classes that have long since vanished.

What is incidental to the lower animals may likewise be incident to man. Why may not the human species be susceptible of as great vanities of bulk as the cat, lizard, or monkey? What should hinder the belief of the possible existence of beings distinguished from other animals by the possession of reason and speech, but varying from each other in bulk, at all the intermediate degrees between ten inches in length to twenty feet? Is there any absurdity in conjecturing that these varieties have heretofore existed, or that the endless progress of time, and combinations of events may hereafter produce them?

The existence of men, widely different in their stature from the present race, would be likely to be preserved by history or tradition. The tales of pigmies and giants, so current in the popular traditions and legends of the ancient nations, are well known. They cannot be regarded as the pure inventions of fancy, though fancy has undoubt-

edly adorned them with many grotesque and incredible circumstances. It is highly probable that they possessed some foundation in truth.

But, dismissing the consideration of the past and the future, let us inquire into those inequalities of stature which are at present to be found among men. What is the greatest and least height to which individuals or tribes of the human race have been known to have attained?

Among the causes that influence the stature of men, the most noted are heat and cold. Extremes of either kind, but particularly of the latter, are supposed to be unfavourable to the expansion and growth of the frame. Hence it is that the natives of the arctic regions seldom exceed four feet in height, while those of the temperate zones, ordinarily attain to six. Among the latter, the uniformity is far from absolute, examples being found of all varieties between five feet and six feet.

A few indubitable cases have occurred of men who did not pass beyond twenty-four inches,* and of some who rose to eight feet.† In these cases the organization and proportions have been complete, and mind and body have possessed the common measure of vigour and duration. These men owed their stature to some other than local causes. It was an occasional friek, or deviation of nature, serving to prove that the rational powers, external symmetry, and vigour, and long life, are compatible with all sizes, from two feet to eight feet in height.

But though the existence of individuals of these dimensions must be admitted, it may be doubted whether any tribes or nations of such pigmies on the one hand, and giants on the other, can be found.

Is there any community of rational beings whose members are ordinarily two or three feet in height, or any nation that usually attains the height of eight or nine feet?

If, in surveying every part of our globe, no such nation can be found, we must not hastily infer the impossibility of its existence. If the moral character of offspring be not modified by that of their parents, it is, at least, certain that the external configuration and size is greatly influenced by circumstances peculiar to the parent. This influence commonly appears in the size and form, there being generally a remarkable similarity, in this respect, between parent and child. But this influence is not always manifested in personal resemblance. The imagination of the mother is found to exercise a potent and mysterious influence in the conformation of the child. There is some inexplicable, but intimate connection between the thoughts and images passing in the mother's mind, and the texture of of her embryo progeny. It is probable, indeed, that the child owes its resemblance to its parents, not to any radical and physical agreement between the particles that compose the germ of the future man and those of the parent, but merely to the operations of the parent's mind. The same laws that produce a strong resemblance in the child to a distant kinsman, or friend of its mother, may produce its resemblance, in other instances, to its father or the mother herself.

But whatever be the cause, the effect is certain. It is well known that children most commonly resemble, in size and figure, their parents. This resemblance, it is reasonable to believe, would be perfect if the mother's situation were

* As in the authentic case of Count Borulawski.

† The Roman Emperor Maximin.

such as to exclude from her fancy, wholly or chiefly, any image but her own and that of her husband. If, therefore, a pair remarkably short or tall, should cohabit accidentally or by design, it seems nearly certain that they would propagate a race diminutive or gigantic, like themselves. If this pair were insulated, or, by any means, should live apart from the rest of mankind, we might hope, in a few generations, to see a nation of giants or pigmies arise, which might be multiplied and diffused at pleasure.

In this race, as in men of our own size, anomalies and exceptions might be expected sometimes to occur. Among the giants, one in a thousand or ten thousand, might fall as low as five feet; and, among the pigmies, dwarfs might occasionally be met with, who should not exceed six inches; but, by pursuing the same measures with regard to these dwarfs, as were adopted in the case of their parents, the same results must be expected to ensue; and thus the fictions of Dean Swift, in his history of Lilliput, which have been deemed the most improbable of all fictions, might be literally realized.

No doubt the reader will smile at the apparent extravagance of these ideas; he will be startled at their novelty; but if, when his mirth has subsided, he will condescend to weigh the principles from which they are drawn, he may find them not utterly destitute of plausibility.

There is another reason why we should not hastily deny the existence of a *little* or *big* people, merely because we do not find any such in a survey of the globe. Let it be remembered how imperfect our knowledge is of the globe which we inhabit.

Let us cast our eye upon a map of the world. We shall find that the habitable land is distributed among the waters in *four* huge masses. Be-

sides these, there are four masses of somewhat inferior magnitude, and a great number of small islands. These several masses (continents and islands) are computed to contain about forty millions of square miles. In what degree are we acquainted with the local incidents, and vegetable and animal productions of this space? With how much are we so well acquainted as to be able to pronounce that it is inhabited by neither pigmies nor giants?

One angle of the eastern continent (Europe) is known with considerable accuracy. The rest of this continent, from the isthmus of Suez to Kamtchatka, has been, perhaps, sufficiently explored to enable us to say by what stature and complexion its inhabitants are distinguished. And yet the summits of Taurus, and the valleys of the Indian Caucasus, are wholly unknown. The farther Indian peninsula is five-fold more extensive than Germany. It is divided into towering ridges and long-drawn vallies; it abounds with snowy pinnacles, flooded plains, and forests old as the world, and which no step of European has hitherto visited. The coasts of Pegu, Siam, Malacca, and Cochin China, have been transiently surveyed. One or two marts, near the mouths of rivers, have been seen; but the dwellers in the low lands and along the shores, are colonists from Coromandel and China, while the vast and mountainous regions within, are still possessed by the aboriginal and uncultivated savages. To judge of the latter by what is met with in the sea-ports, would be as erroneous as to estimate the manners of Noudewessies and Algonquins by what we find upon landing at Charleston or New-York.

Some of the Indian isles are as large as France and Great-Britain united. Their inhabitants are pro-

bably in the rudest state, and therefore divided into hundreds of minute tribes or clans, disconnected with and hostile to each other, and differing from each other in manners and shape. The largest of these is Bornio, of which we know little more than the aspect of its lofty shores, when viewed by the distant voyager, and the equatorial distance of its principal head-lands and reefs.

New-Holland is a region double the extent of Europe, and eighty times as large as South-Britain. Former voyagers descried a few promontories, and Cook sailed along one fourth of its coast. A colony of some hundreds have since occupied a nook of a few miles square. The interior spaces, some of which are as remote from the spots known to and frequented by the English, as the sources of the Mississippi are from Vera Cruz or Kingston in Jamaica, or as Toulon and Ostend are from Archangel and Tobolsk, are wide enough to harbour millions of creatures whose likeness is no where else to be found. These regions are spread through all the latitudes and climates from Canada to Mexico, and must abound with a corresponding variety of animal and vegetable products.

A fourth part of the habitable world is included in Africa. We have sailed along its coasts and possess some knowledge of the banks of the Nile and Senegal, and of the coasts of the Mediterranean and Red Seas; but four fifths of the whole are entirely unknown. We cannot even delineate its great outlines and features, nor are able to say what is mountain, or lake, or river; much less have we inspected the living forms by which it is inhabited.

The northern portion of America may be conceived to be divided, by the Mississippi and Hudson's

bay, into two parts. The land eastward of these is, to the rest, as one is to four. This land is somewhat known to us. It is probable, that had any remarkable varieties of the human species existed between the Mississippi and the Atlantic ocean, they would, at this time, have been known.

Of the remaining portion, Louisiana and the Mexicos have been traversed by the Spanish and French officers and traders; but, to the disgrace of our own age and nation, the rest is quite as much unknown to us, as are the mountains of Upper Siam or the western rivers of New-Holland.

The same thing may be said of South-America. The Portuguese and Spaniards possess this country, but they are unable to describe the local condition of more than one sixth of it. The immense regions stretching from the Andes to the frontiers of Brazil, and the springs of La Plata, are deserts whose inhabitants have never been molested by the Europeans. We may gain, perhaps, an adequate conception of the ignorance of the Portuguese and Spaniards, respecting their interior country, by comparing it with our own ignorance of the regions beyond the sources of the Mississippi and Missouri. What casual information may have been gained by Spanish traders and governors is placed beyond our reach.

As South-America tends southward, its coasts approach, and finally unite with each other, so as to form a triangular peninsula, one thousand miles in length, and five hundred miles in breadth at the base. This region is the least known of any in America. Here it might be expected that uncommon deviations from known patterns would take place. The space is wide, the climate is variable and inclement, and the surface thrown into the utmost disorder by the

ridges of the Andes which intersect it. All the causes favourable to the production of irregular and enormous bodies, are collected in this space; and here there are more proofs of the existence of a gigantic race of men, than in any other part of the globe.

As the interior country has not been visited and explored by travellers, or, at least, as none have published their discoveries, all the intelligence to be expected is from those who have occasionally ranged along the coasts, or entered the harbours. The inland nations would therefore be unknown, unless they sometimes wandered along the shores, and were, by accident, descried from the passing ships. Many ships must hence be expected to visit the coast without seeing them; and, as other tribes may likewise occupy the country, whose height is of the common standard, the latter must sometimes have been met with by voyagers as well as the former.

The navigators who have coasted this land, and who testify the existence of men of an extraordinary stature, are, Magellan, Drake, Cavendish, Sebald de Vert, Oliver Noort, Spilbergen, and Shouten. In the present century, Byron, and two French men, Duclos Guyot, and Giraudais.

The testimony of these men could not be uniform in all particulars. The observation of some would be more hasty and imperfect than that of others. Some would estimate the height of the natives by the eye, or by comparison with neighbouring objects, and therefore be liable to great errors. Some would draw their inference from the marks of footsteps, or from skeletons, or from the particular dimensions of some member of the body. A disagreement, therefore, so far from creating surprize or incredulity, must be considered as in-

evitable. It is sufficient to justify our belief that they all agree in representing the natives as remarkably taller than themselves, though they have varied in their estimates from seven feet and an half to ten feet and an half.

It is likewise to be considered, that Patagonians, like other men, must be of different heights at different ages, and that some individuals among them could not but exceed or fall short of the customary stature.

It is only in the present age that the observations of voyagers have become exact, and their testimony worthy of full credit. Byron, who was dispatched on a voyage of discovery in 1764, has described men of gigantic stature, whom he met with in the straits of Magellan. Their height, by many strong, though comparative circumstances was estimated at eight and nine feet.

The evidence of Duclos Guyot, and Giraudais, who sailed along this coast two years after, perfectly agrees with that of Byron.

It must not be concealed, however, that other voyagers have told a somewhat different story. Carteret and Wallace, in 1766, not only conversed with some natives of this coast, but actually measured their height, and found it to be from six feet to six feet seven inches. It may be added, that the men thus measured, had ornaments about their bodies, of the same kind with those contained in Carteret's ship, and which were probably obtained from Byron and his crew. Hence it is inferred by Dr. Robertson, that these were the very men whose stature had been so greatly overrated by that navigator. This conclusion is strengthened by observing that Byron judged not from measurement, but by comparisons, whose delusiveness, especially in these cases, is well known.

Bougainville, who also measured

some persons on this coast, agrees essentially with Wallace; but our evidence, though thus apparently contradictory, may perhaps be reconciled. The considerations formerly mentioned, that the country is extensive, inhabited by small and unsettled tribes, who may be readily supposed to differ in customs and size, and that the men seen by these three navigators, were possibly of different clans or of different ages, are of some weight. We cannot otherwise conceive why the accounts of Carteret and Bougainville should so widely differ from the concurring testimony of so many preceding voyagers, who had as few motives to deceive, and whose assertions are no less positive.

But Wallace and Bougainville differ from each other, as well as from Byron's officers and Giraudais, not only in the size of the natives, but in other important particulars. Those seen by Byron, painted a circle round each eye; those examined by Carteret, had a circle round their left eye only; and those with whom Bougainville conversed, painted nothing but their cheeks. Hence it is highly probable that these three observers had intercourse with people of different tribes, who, as was before observed, since they differed in manners, might likewise differ in stature. It is well known that in the Scottish highlands, there is a tall clan of the Campbells, and a short one of the Frazers. Now, a Patagonian, eight feet high, is not taller than a Campbell by more, than a Campbell is taller than a Frazer.

That Byron's trinkets were found upon those men seen by Carterets, may be accounted for, by supposing that these trinkets had been transferred by one individual to another through a great number of hands. Though Byron's Patagons were not measured by a scale, like those of Carteret and Bougain-

ville, yet their height was estimated by circumstances that would not easily mislead.

The eye is a deceitful measurer; but Byron, whose stature was nearly six feet, and some of his officers still taller, found it difficult, even on tip-toe, to reach the head of a native near whom they stood. A native seated on the ground, was on a level with an European standing: and a cloak, belonging to the shortest of the troop, when put on by one of Giraudais's crew, who was five feet seven inches in height, trailed above a foot and an half along the ground. The women seemed to be of an height proportional to that of the males.

On the whole, there seems reason to conclude, not only from the laws that generally influence the human frame, and from individual instances among ourselves, but from historical evidence, that a nation of men exists whose ordinary height is eight feet: a nation not materially varying from the civilized inhabitants of Europe, in intellectual capacity, and whose external proportions are essentially the same.

If nations exist exceeding our own standard by two feet and an half, analogy should seem to justify us in inferring the existence of a race which falls short of us in the same degree, that is, whose standard height is three feet.

To support this inference I might remind you once more of our unacquaintance with the world, and insist upon the rashness of denying the existence of tribes, taller or shorter than ourselves, while three fourths of the habitable globe have never been explored, and the creatures that inhabit them are absolutely unknown to us: but it happens that evidence of the existence of such a diminutive race, has been produced. Travellers have described an inland people of Madagascar, who are not more remarkable for

other properties than for their small stature.

What evidence there is for this opinion, having already extended this essay to too great a length, I shall discuss, with your leave, on some future occasion. X.

The BREAKFAST.

A Table near the fire, with two Bowls of Chocolate and Bread—Alfred seats himself and calls his Brother Edwin, who enters, leading in a meagre, ragged, shivering little Boy.

Edwin. OH Alfred, see this poor fellow is almost perished with the cold, and he says he has no fire at home, and no clothes but these rags; come close to our fire, and warm you, don't be ashamed.

Alfred. He looks hungry too, poor child; have you had any breakfast to-day?

Boy. No, Sir, nor yesterday either; I have had nothing to eat since the night before; and yesterday I laid a-bed all day, 'cause it was so cold and stormy, and mam'my had no fire, and I had no shoes nor mittens, so I could not go out to beg a little; and so, to-day I was so hungry I crept out a bit.

Edwin. Oh my! how empty he must be: Oh! here's mamma: this poor boy, mamma, is almost starved; do pray order him some breakfast.

Mrs. T. My dear there is no more chocolate boil'd, and that is the last of the loaf which is set before you, and the baker will not be here till noon.

Edwin. Oh Alfred, let us give him half our breakfast.

Alfred. He is very hungry, Edwin, half would be nothing to him; let us give it him all, that he may have one good belly-full.

Edwin. So we will, I will hand

you the big bowl, and put it all together.

(They put all in one bowl, and drawing the table close to the fire, give the boy a stool, and bid him fall to—he eats greedily, while Alfred stands and looks at him, with a tear rolling down his cheek: Edwin claps his hands, capers and dances round.)

Edwin. Well done, my hearty. See Alfred, see how the fellow eats!

Alfred. Hush, Edwin, you will daunt the poor boy.

Boy. Thank you, gentlemen, thank you; I do feel so comfortable now. I have not had so good a breakfast this twelve-month.

Alfred. I am sure I never had so good a one in my life.

Edwin. Nor I neither. Much good may it do you, my little shaver; and now, Alfred, let us off to school, we shall have good stomachs for our luncheon.

(As they go round the house, they see their mamma at the front door, they run up to kiss her.)

Mrs. T. Come to my arms, my darlings, dearer than ever; take a fond mother's blessing. May God, who delights in mercy, preserve and cherish in my dear boys, that blessed disposition which has prompted them to spare a necessary meal to feed the hungry; and, may they never want means to indulge the sweet source of happiness. Had I provided a breakfast for that poor boy, you would have been pleased to see him eat; but you would not have known that exquisite delight of having, yourselves, ministered to his wants; that charming consciousness of having performed a duty which carries with it an immediate reward. By a small self-denial, you have relieved the distress of a fellow creature, and your hearts enjoy a luxury which no sensual gratifications could give: but now, as you have given your breakfasts to a poor

hungry boy, come in and partake of one with your happy parents, whose every care is softened by the sweet hopes they form from the amiable dispositions of their children. Your little beggar's other wants shall be attended to, you shall see him comfortably clothed, the distress of his family shall be relieved, and he shall be put in some way of learning to get his own livelihood, and assisting his aged parents, and helpless brothers and sisters.

To the Editor of the Monthly Magazine.

SIR,

MANY of your readers are, perhaps, already informed that I have, for some months past, devoted my leisure hours to the collection of materials, with a view of writing an history of New-York. It is my design to begin with the first colonial establishment by the Dutch, and to end with the late revolutionary war. The work is intended to include, besides the usual details of political transactions, as large an account of the Indian tribes and our relations with them, of ecclesiastical affairs and proceedings, and of our agricultural, commercial, and literary progress, as will be consistent with the requisite brevity.

In an undertaking of this kind, it will readily occur to you that much difficulty must arise from the scattered state of the documents necessary to be consulted; and that, after the largest accumulation of materials which an individual can accomplish, much dependence must be placed on the kind assistance of literary gentlemen, in different parts of the state.

With a view to obtain such assistance, I drew up, several months

ago, the subjoined queries, and transmitted a few copies of them to some gentlemen, who were judged able and disposed to furnish the desired information. As these, however, had a very small circulation, and as the purpose intended by them has been hitherto but very partially attained, I take the liberty of soliciting a place for them in your very useful Magazine.

It can hardly be doubted but that many of the descendants of the first settlers, and principal families of our state, have books and papers in their possession, which would be important to a collector of materials for its history. It is to be lamented that their reluctance to disclose is so great. I hope this general application to such persons, will induce them to communicate, without delay, what they possess of this nature. The smallest article of information which they may find it convenient to furnish, will confer an obligation on me, and will promote a work which is undertaken with a view to public utility. It will doubtless be recollected, that as there are few works which require more patient and indefatigable labour, than the one in question; so there are none, in accomplishing which, it is more in the power of all descriptions of persons to afford assistance.

I am, Sir, with much respect,
Your humble servant,

SAMUEL MILLER.

New-York, July 24, 1799.

—
QUERIES, &c.

1. When was the first settlement made by the Dutch in New-Netherlands? Under what authority did these settlers come to America? What were their number and their condition, with respect to character and property?

2. When did the first regular organization of the colony, and the

first appointment of a governor, or director-general, take place? And who was the first director?

3. In what years were the first forts built at Albany, (then called *Fort Orange*), and at New-York, (then *New-Amsterdam*), and by whom? And what were the names of the commanding officers in each, previous to the arrival of the first governor?

4. What kind of government was exercised in the colony of *New-Netherlands* by the Dutch? On what terms were lands granted and settled by them?

5. What was the nature of the council appointed to advise and assist the Dutch governors in the execution of their office? What the names and number of the counselors at different times?

6. Were the predecessors of governor *Stuyvesant*, *Wouter Van Twiller*, and *William Kieft*, removed from office by death, or for ill behaviour? What was the character of each? And what became of them?

7. What were the numbers of houses, and of inhabitants, in the towns of *New-Amsterdam*, and *Fort Orange*, at different times, under the Dutch administration; and what has been the rate of increase of these towns, under different names, since?

8. What were the names and numbers of the INDIAN TRIBES inhabiting the country which has been since called New-York, when the Europeans first visited it?

9. What records can be obtained of the trade, the disputes, the wars, and the treaties between the Dutch colony and the Indian Tribes, and between the colony and state of New-York, and the same tribes, since?

10. When was your part of the state first settled by white people? What were the number and condition of these first settlers, the cir-

cumstances attending their settlement, and the motives which led to it?

11. What tribes, and what number of Indians did the first settlers of your district find when they went into it? What reception did they meet with? At what *rate*, and at what *time* did these Indians diminish, or evacuate the country? —N. B. All documents respecting the Indians, who have been in any wise connected with the colony or state of New-York, or which tend to throw any light on their history, character, or customs, will be particularly acceptable.

12. At what time, and by whose agency did the most considerable TOWNS in your county, first take their rise? What were the circumstances and the motives which led to their establishment? What the advantages of their situation, and the kind of trade or business suiting them?

13. Can any pamphlets, or other records, be obtained which contain authentic information respecting any of the numerous TERRITORIAL DISPUTES between the colony and state of New-York, and the surrounding colonies and states?

14. Are there any documents to be found, which exhibit any curious legislative, judicial, or executive proceedings, at whatever period of our history?

15. What have been the number and state of the MILITIA, at different periods, in New-York?

16. What was the state of RELIGION in this colony, while under the Dutch administration? When and where was the first place of worship built? How many places of worship were there in the colony previous to the surrender in 1664, and where situated? And what ecclesiastical authority were these churches under?

17. When were the CHURCHES in your part of the state, of all de-

nominations, first organized? What number of members had they in the beginning, and at different periods since? What ministers have they had? What were their names, the dates of their settlement and removal, and the salaries given to them respectively?

18. What changes have different congregations undergone, as to numbers, property, &c.? What disputes have existed among them? And what remarkable customs have they retained or abolished?—N. B. All facts and anecdotes, in any wise relating to the ecclesiastical history of the state, are much desired.

19. When were SCHOOLS and other seminaries of learning first instituted in New-York? Were there any under the Dutch government? If any, what were their number, character, &c.? What have been the number and situation of schools, at different periods, since?

20. What records, facts, and anecdotes can you furnish, which throw light on the PROGRESS OF LUXURY in the state? When were the most conspicuous articles of luxurious indulgence, such as pleasure-carriages of different kinds, &c. first introduced, and by whom?

21. Can you give any information concerning the state of MORALS at different periods, such as the comparative frequency of drunkenness, gaming, conjugal infidelity, prostitution, &c.?

22. What remarkable laws, customs, or usages, either local or general, have taken place in the state, at different periods? Are there any curious records or monuments, which have survived the ravages of time, which evince any thing remarkable in the state of public improvement, at the time they were formed?

23. When were NEGRO SLAVES first introduced into the colony, and by whom? And what were

their numbers, and the treatment they received at different periods?

24. When was the first PRINTING PRESS (if any) established in your county, and by whom? When was the first book or newspaper (if any) printed?

25. Have you any public LIBRARIES? If any, when were they instituted? By whom? What is the number of volumes in each?

26. What were the dates, circumstances, and authors of the various REMARKABLE DISCOVERIES which have taken place in the state, either of antiquities, natural curiosities, or of any other kind?

27. At what times were the different kinds of grain, stock, &c. which were imported from Europe, first introduced into the colony?

28. What appears to have been the amount of the EXPORTS and IMPORTS, at different times, from the earliest period?

29. What information can you furnish concerning the dates and progress of the various improvements which have taken place, either in the department of politics, commerce, manufactures, agriculture, literature, or humanity?

30. Do you possess, or can you direct to any old MAPS, BOOKS, PAMPHLETS, STATE-PAPERS, or any other kind of documents, which will in any wise, either directly or indirectly, throw light on any part of our history?

N. B. Where original papers, or copies of originals, are not sent, a particular account is desired, of the authority from which the various articles of information are derived.

The Punishment of Ridicule:

A Fragment.

THIS evening I called, on my way home, at Canning's. I found him standing within the door

of his shop, and laughing with the utmost glee. I looked, at first, for the object of his good-humour, but found that his attention was occupied merely with mirthful recollections.

His laughter would not, for a long time, permit him to explain the incident that affected him. At length he told me that, when a boy, he used to join other boys in persecuting an old crabbed wretch who lived in the town of Lancaster. His name was Linehoff. He inhabited an hut in the purlieus, and maintained himself, he knew not how; but his whole care seemed to be laid out upon a couple of pigs. These he suffered to range abroad during the day, but pent them up at night in a small enclosure adjoining his house. As evening approached, it was his business to entice the wanderers into their pen. They commonly hovered in sight at that hour, and he had little more to do than stand at his door and cry out *pig! pig! pig!* There was nothing singular in these words. All that was remarkable lay in the voice of him who uttered them: but that was so loud, shrill, and discordant, as to attract the notice and excite the astonishment of every one within hearing.

Boys are remarkably sagacious with respect to the singularities of their seniors, and always select something in the gait, accents, or figure of an object, as a theme of ridicule. This man soon became distinguished by his call. His tones, though uncommon, were easily mimicked. Whenever he appeared in the street, he was pursued with the cry of *pig! pig! pig!* uttered with a tolerably exact imitation of his own discords.

This treatment was sure to exasperate him in the highest degree. He would pursue the culprits with every mark of rage, threatening to tear them into a thousand pieces.

Their alertness easily eluded the pursuit of a feeble old man, and while he ran after one, he himself was pursued by others, scores of them, clamouring with all their might *pig! pig! pig!* till the unhappy man's fury mounted almost to distraction.

In proportion as this treatment was galling to him, was the diligence and unanimity of their zeal, till at length Linehoff removed his habitation to some other part of the country. To this removal he was generally believed to have been prompted by the unceasing persecutions to which he was exposed.

Twelve years have since elapsed. Canning came to this city, and, you know, is now settled here. Some months ago, he observed an old man frequently pass his shop-door. There was something in the air and figure of the passenger which seemed familiar to him. This evening, on his passing again, he went to the window, and followed him, for a few seconds, with his eye. He tasked his recollection in order to retrieve the almost obliterated image. Suddenly he recognized this person to be no other than Linehoff. All the circumstances attending his former knowledge of him, thronged at once into his memory; and, guided by an almost involuntary impulse, he thrust his head forward and cried out, in the genuine style of old Linehoff, *pig! pig! pig!*

The old man started as if bitten by a rattle-snake; stopped; looked fearfully round, first this way, then that; and stammered out a few execrations. Searching in vain for his tormentor, he resumed his way, but mended his pace, and occasionally cast his eye behind him.

Our friend was making himself very merry with this adventure, when an old uncouth personage suddenly presented himself at the door. His countenance expressed

the utmost eagerness and anxiety. He first fixed his eye upon me, and, in the hurry of his scrutiny, brought his face to within three inches of mine. He found no satisfaction from this survey, and turned his view towards our friend. At that moment Canning burst into loud laughter, and this circumstance was sufficient to betray him. The old man lifted his arm, and, with one blow, levelled Canning with the earth. This attack was made with the swiftness of lightning, and allowed our friend no time to repel or elude the stroke. He, however, instantly recovered his feet. They did not support him long, for the old man, brandishing a pen-knife, plunged it into his body.

Immediate interference prevented a repetition of the stroke, which, happily, proved to be short of killing. The old man foamed with fury, and it required the strength of several people to repress his efforts. I easily discovered that this was the persecuted Linehoff. How acute must have been the sufferings of this man when they prompted him to so signal a revenge upon the author of them!

Nothing appears to me more detestable and merciless than this spirit of ridicule, when I reflect upon the consequences it produces: but I know that it arises not from a cruel, but a thoughtless disposition: it is often found in men of incontestible benevolence. Such is our friend; and yet, in the features of this man, pregnant with impatience and anger, he found only new incitements to laughter.

Linehoff was, of course, transported to prison. I find that he is a resident in this city, and has, for several years, maintained himself, and a bed-ridden wife, by his industry. He bears the repute of a sober, harmless, and indefatigable person. The change that has now befallen him, must quickly end in

his destruction, and that of the desolate and decrepid old creature his wife. Imprisonment, though it do not terminate in trial or in execution, will, nevertheless, be ruinous to one in his circumstances.

Canning is declared to be out of danger; but the cure of his wound will be lingering and painful; and his consequent inactivity will be essentially detrimental to his affairs. Such is the penalty of lawless and precipitate ridicule.

TO SAMUEL L. MITCHILL, F. R.
S. and L. L. D. and Professor of
Chymistry in Columbia College,
New-York.

SIR,

BEING convinced from our late correspondence on mathematical subjects, of your sincere attachment to scientific pursuits, and that no one is more ready than yourself to encourage the discovery of truth, and the detection of false and pretended discoveries, I have, therefore, sent you the inclosed paper, entitled, "Mr. Saltonstall's method of finding a universal standard measure, described by S. M. H. in the New-York Monthly Magazine, for June, 1799, demonstrated to be false:" which I shall be much obliged to you to communicate to the editor of that Magazine, in order that it may be published as speedily as possible. This method of finding a universal standard measure, is not new; it was first communicated to me in the year 1788, by the eminent mathematician Mr. J. Howard, of the city of Carlisle in England, who then informed me, that some years previous to that time, he had received it as an original discovery of a person in Holland.

The principle upon which this discovery is founded, has long since

been demonstrated to be false, not of the cone only, but of the sphere, spheroid, &c. &c. (See Emerson's Theory of Geography, from page 127 to page 133. Edit. 1770. and Dr. Hutton's Mathematical Miscellany, from page 64 to page 67. Edit. 1775.) These demonstrations are, however, deduced from the nature of the loxodromic spiral; but that which I now give to the public, is drawn from a new and simple principle, independent of the spiral, and may easily be extended universally to the sphere, spheroid, &c. &c. by means of the equations of the generating curves. From the manner in which this pretended discovery is described by S. M. H. and from my previous knowledge of the subject in England, I cannot possibly avoid suspecting it as a plagiarism: but as it is evident from S. M. H.'s description in the above-mentioned Magazine, that neither he, nor his friend Mr. Saltonstall, is possessed of much mathematical knowledge: and, as discoveries have generally some analogy to the abilities of the discoverers, it is not therefore absolutely impossible that, to Mr. Saltonstall, this discovery may have been original.

I am, Sir, your humble servant,
GEORGE BARON.

No. 69 Broadway.
New-York, July 25, 1799. }

Mr. Saltonstall's method of finding a Universal Standard Measure, described by S. M. H. in the New-York Monthly Magazine, for June, 1799, demonstrated to be false, by George Baron, Teacher of the Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in New-York, and formerly Master of the Mathematical Academy at South-Shields, in the county of Durham, in England.

Definition I.

THE distance rolled over, by a cylinder rolling upon a plane, is measured upon a straight line, in

that plane, drawn perpendicular to the line of contact of the plane and cylinder.

Definition II.

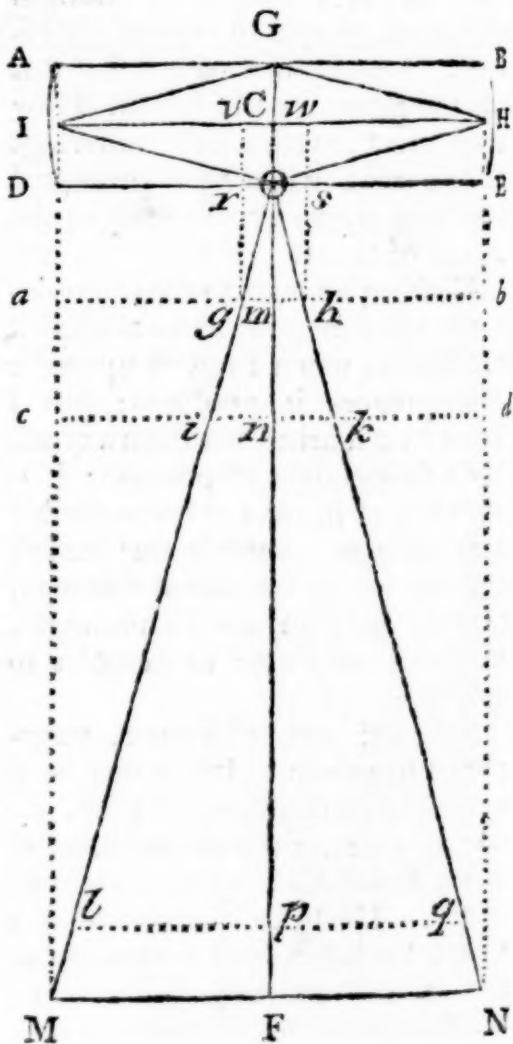
The radius of a cylinder is the radius of a circle, which the section of a cylinder and a plane, perpendicular to its axis. The same is to be understood of the radius of a cone at a given point of its axis.

Axiom I.

The space rolled over by a cylinder upon a plane, is a right angled parallelogram.

Axiom II.

If cylinders of unequal radii, rolling upon planes, roll uniformly over equal distances in equal times, the rotary velocities of the cylinders round their axis are reciprocally as their radii. And if the rotary velocities be reciprocally as the radii, the cylinders will roll uniformly over equal distances in equal times.



Lemma I.

Let $A B E D$ be a cylinder, and $D E$ its line of contact with the plane of the paper $M O N$. Draw $O F$ perpendicular to $D O E$, and let $O M$ and $O N$ make with $O F$ any equal angles $M O F$ and $F O N$. If the cylinder $A B E D$ be rolled upon the plane $M O N$, from O towards M, N , so as to roll uniformly over equal distances $O m, m n$ in equal times; it will also roll uniformly over equal parts of $O M$ and $O N$ in equal times, and the contemporary parts rolled over of $O M$ and $O N$ will be equal.

Demonstration.

Through m and n draw $g m h$ and $i n k$ parallel to $D E$, then by axiom 1. $O g, O m, O h$, and $g i, m n, h k$ are contemporary parts rolled over by the cylinder. And because the cylinder rolls uniformly over the equal distances $O m, m n$ in equal times, and the triangles $O m g, O n i, O m h$, and $O n k$, are similar; it follows that the cylinder will roll uniformly over the equal parts $O g, g i$ and $O h, h k$, and that the contemporary parts $O g, O h$ and $g i, h k$ are equal. Q. E. D.

Cor. 1. If the cylinder roll uniformly over equal parts $O h, h k$ of any straight line $O N$, in equal times; draw $O F$ perpendicular to $D O E$, make the angle $F O M = F O N$, and through h and k draw $h m g$ and $k n i$ parallel to $D O E$, then will the cylinder roll uniformly over the equal distances $O m, m n$ of $O F$ in equal times; and uniformly over the equal parts $O g, g i$ of $O M$ in equal times; the parts $O h, O m, O g$ and $h k, m n, g i$, will be contemporaries, and the contemporary parts $O h, O g$ and $g i, h k$ equal to one another.

Cor. 2. What is demonstrated, in this lemma and cor. 1, of a cylinder rolling upon a plane, is also true of a cylinder rolling along the straight lines $O M, O N$, providing the straight lines $O M, O F, O N$,

be always in the same plane $M O N$, and $D E$ be the line of contact of the cylinder and that plane.

Lemma II.

Let every part of the figure denote, as in lemma 1, produce $g h$ and $i k$ to a, b and c, d , draw $D a c M$ and $E b d N$ parallel to $O F$, and draw the straight line $M F N$. Let the cylinder roll along the straight lines $O M, O N$ from O towards M, N , and in every point m rolled over in the straight line $O F$, suppose the radius of the cylinder diminished in the ratio of $a m$ to $a g$, and the rotary velocity of the cylinder round its axis, increased in the ratio of $a g$ to $a m$; I say that the cylinder, thus variable, will, by means of its thus variable rotary velocity, roll uniformly over equal distances $O m, m n$ in equal times: and that what was demonstrated in lemma 1, and its corollaries, concerning the invariable cylinder, is also true of the cylinder whose radius and rotary velocity are thus variable.

Demonstration.

This evidently follows from the second and first axioms and lemma 1, and its corollaries. Q. E. D.

Cor. 1. When the variable cylinder arrives indefinitely near $M F N$, its radius is indefinitely small, and its rotary velocity indefinitely great: and when it arrives at $M F N$, its radius is nothing, and its rotary velocity infinite.

For, let $R =$ radius of the cylinder at O , $r =$ its radius at any other point m , $v =$ the rotary velocity of the cylinder at O , and $V =$ its rotary velocity at m , then by hypothesis $a m : a g :: R : r :: V : v$. But when the variable cylinder arrives at $M F N$, $a g$ becomes nothing. Hence it evidently follows, that when the variable cylinder arrives indefinitely near $M F N$, its radius is indefinitely small, and its rotary velocity is indefinitely great: and when it arrives at $M F N$, its

radius is nothing, and its rotary velocity is infinite.

Cor. 2. In the straight line OF , let pF be any given distance, through p draw lpq parallel to DE ; the variable cylinder in rolling over pF , lM or qN , will revolve an infinite number of times round its axis.

Lemma III.

Let every part of the figure denote, as in lemma 2, and let the plane OGC be perpendicular to IH the axis of the cylinder, bisecting it in C ; draw gr , hs , parallel to Om , and rv , sw perpendicular to IH the axis of the cylinder; then is $DO = OE = am = mb$, $vc = cw = ro = os = gm = mh$, and consequently $lv = wh = Dr = se = ag = hb$. Join OI and OH , and imagine the isosceles triangle OIH to revolve round the axis IH and generate the double cone $OIGH$. Let now the cylinder $DABE$, including the double cone $OIGH$, be conceived to roll along the straight lines OM , ON from O towards M , N , the radius and rotary velocity of the cylinder varying as in lemma 2, the double cone remaining invariable, and the axis IH and the variable rotary velocity continuing common to the variable cylinder, and to the invariable double cone. I say that the loci of the surface of the variable cylinder, and any contemporary points of contact g , h , of the straight lines OM , ON , are upon the surface of the variable double cone $OIGH$: and that what was demonstrated of the variable cylinder in lemma 2, is also true of the invariable double cone $OIGH$.

Demonstration.

In the variable cylinder am (IC)
 $: ag (lv) :: CO : \frac{lv \times CO}{IC} =$ the
 radius of the variable cylinder at
 any point g or h , and in the double
 cone $IC : lv :: CO : \frac{lv \times CO}{IC} =$

radius of the double cone at the point v or w ; therefore the radius of the variable cylinder at g or h is equal to the radius of the double cone at v or w ; but $gm = mh = vc = cw$. Hence it is evident that the loci of the surface of the variable cylinder, and any contemporary points of contact g , h of the straight lines OM , ON are upon the surface of the constant double cone $OIGH$. And if instead of the variable cylinder rolling along the straight lines OM , ON , with the variable rotary velocity as in lemma 2, we here suppose the double cone $OIGH$ to roll along the same straight lines with the same variable rotary velocity, it is evident that what was demonstrated of the variable cylinder in lemma 2, is also true of the double cone. Q. E. D.

Cor. 1. When the double cone arrives indefinitely near MFN , its radius is indefinitely small, and its rotary velocity round its axis is indefinitely great: and when it arrives at MFN , its radius is nothing, and its rotary velocity infinite.

This follows from cor. 1, lemma 2, and this lemma.

Cor. 2. In the straight line OM , let Ml be any given distance, through l draw lq parallel to DE ; the double cone $OIGH$, in rolling over lM or qN , will revolve an infinite number of times round its axis.

This follows from cor. 2, lemma 2, and this lemma.

Proposition.

Mr. Saltonstall's method of finding a universal standard measure, described by S. M. H. in the New-York Monthly Magazine for June, 1799, is false.

Demonstration.

Let the figure represent, as in lemma 3. Mr. Saltonstall's method of finding a universal standard measure is founded upon the hypothesis that the double cone $OIGH$,

rolling along the straight lines M O, N O, will roll over a given distance M I or N q, by revolving a given finite number of times round its axis I H; (see page 177 and 178 of the above-mentioned Magazine), but by cor. 2, lemma 3, the number of revolutions is infinite. Therefore Mr. Saltonstall's method of finding a universal standard measure is false. Q. E. D.

To the Editor of the Monthly Magazine.

SIR,

A NEIGHBOUR of mine has just informed me that one of your correspondents has found out a way to do something which no body could ever do before, and that he believes you have a number of such correspondents, who will continually furnish your Magazine with easy methods of performing useful and difficult things. This, Sir, has encouraged me to write to you, in hopes that some of your learned correspondents will please to do something for me which I cannot possibly do for myself, and which is as follows:—

About the beginning of May last, I agreed to sink a well for three persons, A. B. C. for which I was to receive forty dollars; and each person's share of the expense was to be in proportion to the distance of his house from the well; in such a manner that he who lived nearer the well should pay more than he who lived at a greater distance. The work being finished, A.'s distance from the well was found to be thirty, B.'s forty-two, and C.'s fifty-four yards. Now A. B. and C. being good honest people, every one of them is desirous of paying his part of my wages; but the misfortune is, that neither they nor I know how much each ought to pay; and, in consequence of which, I cannot

receive my wages. I shall, therefore be much obliged to any of your ingenious correspondents to inform me in the next Magazine, how much A. B. and C. are severally indebted to me.

I am, Sir,

Yours, &c.

ADAM WORKMAN.

Remarks on Mr. Saltonstall's Scheme for a Standard of Measure; contained in a Letter from Mr. Robert Patterson, Professor of Mathematics in the University of Pennsylvania, to a Friend in New-York.

Philadelphia, July 30, 1799.

SIR,

I HAVE received your favour of the 16th, and carefully examined the article in the Magazine of last month, to which you refer. —A standard of measure, possessing the properties ascribed to the one which is the subject of this article, would well deserve all the encomium which the describer has, however lavishly, bestowed upon it. But alas! this, with every other scheme to find out a universal standard of measure, independent of gravity, or of any local definite measure, which shall be “capable of being transmitted from age to age, and from country to country, by description merely,” must, I fear, like their sister-schemes of a perpetual motion, all prove abortive. Both the inventor and describer seem to have deceived themselves by not duly considering the properties of a continually-decreasing geometrical series. The distances between the several threads of the spiral line, described on the cone by its rolling along the triangle, are accurately enough stated, as forming the terms of such a series. Now, though the sum of all the terms of

this series may be readily calculated, the two first terms being known, yet the *number* of terms is absolutely incalculable: for every succeeding term, being a certain proportional part of the preceding one, it is impossible that in any finite number they should become completely evanescent; their number, therefore, must be infinite.

This may be illustrated by a familiar example: suppose that from a hogshhead containing one hundred gallons of spirits, fifty gallons were drawn off, the hogshhead filled up with water, and fifty gallons of the mixture again drawn off; and so on continually. Here the quantity of spirits drawn off at the several exhaustions, will form the terms of a continually-decreasing geometrical series, of which fifty gallons will be the first term, twenty-five the second, twelve and an half the third, &c. and the sum of all the terms will evidently be one hundred: but neither Mr. S. M. H. nor any other person, can calculate the number of terms or exhaustions necessary to draw off the *whole* of the spirits; for, after a million of exhaustions, or any other finite number, the fifty gallons remaining in the hogshhead, would still be a mixture of spirits and water, or *weak grog*.

I am persuaded that Mr. Saltonstall never submitted his invention either to the test of experiment, or of actual calculation. If he had, he would soon have been convinced of the fallacy of his theory; and, what may perhaps appear a little paradoxical, the nearer his apparatus had approached to mathematical exactness, the greater would have been the difference in the results: for if we suppose the apparatus *perfectly* exact, and made of materials perfectly hard and non-elastic, the cone, in rolling from the

angle A towards B B, must either revolve with an infinite velocity, or continue an infinite length of time before it would drop off.

Upon the whole, I am convinced that the pendulum, without a bob, proposed by Mr. Jefferson,* in his report, as a standard of measure, is, both as to exactness and practicability, preferable to all others that have yet been proposed for that purpose.

I am, with much esteem,

Your obedient servant,

ROBERT PATTERSON.

Dr. MITCHILL's third Letter on
ALKALIES.

New-York, July 17, 1799.

To Miss A——.

My Dear Margaretta,

DURING the very pleasant excursion Mrs. M. yourself, and Mrs. C. made to the falls, near the town of Patterson, in the State of New-Jersey, a few days ago, you recollect we visited the spot where the copper-mine, on the neck of land between the Hackinsack and Pasaick rivers, had been worked. On examining samples of the ore, you admired, very much, the heaviness of some pieces, and the green, blue, and variegated colours of others. But nothing attracted your attention so much as the beautiful and *chrystallized spars*, which had been drawn from the mine with the masses of ore. The regular and elegant forms of these mineral productions, were so striking and curious, that you obtained from me a promise I would give you some further account of the earth of which they consisted, on our return to New-York. This I

* Mr. Jefferson does not claim the merit of this invention: it was communicated to him by Mr. Robert Leslie, an ingenious watch-maker of Philadelphia.

purpose now to do, as I have sufficiently rested since I delivered the oration on the anniversary of American independence, to the citizens of New-York, on the 4th instant.

The earthy matter composing the chrystals you admired so much, is principally of that kind, called by MEN OF SCIENCE, *calcareous*. It resembles, very nearly, the lime of which so much use is made in constructing and cleaning houses. The proof of which is, that by proper management, such a kind of terrene substance may be procured from them. *Lime*, or *calcareous earth*, is capable of being dissolved in water, of being precipitated from its solution, and of combining with various acids, whereby it assumes, according to circumstances, a great variety of forms, such as marbles, alabasters, lime-stones, fluors, corals, shells, chalks, and chrystals, of different shapes, hues, and sizes.

Lime, however, though so much the subject of admiration in its *chrystallizations*, is more the object of wonder on account of its *antiseptic powers*, whereby it preserves animal and vegetable substances from corruption, and perpetuates their remains longer than any other material with which we are acquainted. Bodies thus surrounded by *lime*, and afterwards hardened to stone, are called *petrifications*; and these petrifications exhibit the most ancient remains of organized beings that are to be found on the globe we inhabit. Mummies, and other pieces of embalming, are of a very modern date compared to them, as you observed in the Egyptian pieces I showed you. *These* are more easily subject to crumbling and decay, while *those* are as durable as the hills which they compose. This antiseptic quality of *lime*, is alluded to very philosophically in Mr. SARGENT's dramatic poem, which I saw lately in your hand, (The MINE, p. 29 and 30) where

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the queen of the Gnomes, and her attendant spirits, thus sing of the power of *petrification* personified under the name of FOSSILIA:

"Where the sanguine corals shine,
In a dripping sea-worn cave,
Let chill FOSSILIA recline
Watching the quick-circling wave:
As her translucent shuttles glance,
The tessellated webs advance.
Till nature rescued by her potent breath,
Exults to perish and revives in death.

"Her splendid Talisman can give
Each plant and insect form to live;
Gay birds still flutter though to marble
grown,
The deer's proud antlers branch in wrinkled
stone;
Impearl'd the scaly tortoise lies,
While the huge elephant supplies
This ivory spoil; and wreath'd in rocky
fold,
The crested snake convolves his maze of
gold."

Lime, or *calcareous earth*, prevents putrefaction, by absorbing the water and neutralizing the septic acid necessary for that process. It is allowed by all, that moisture, which is but another term for a moderate quantity of water, is essential to putrefaction. It is equally well known that such animal and vegetable substances as contain septon, (azote) do afford, by its aid, inconvenient degrees of heat, septic (nitric) acid; and the common experiment of decomposing the lean or muscular part of animals by the agency of that acid, and obtaining thereby septous (azotic) air, proves that this sour offspring of corruption is a great destroyer of organic matter. The practice of corroding by septous (nitrous) acid, the solid parts of animal viscera after their injection with coloured wax, evinces to all makers of anatomical preparations, beyond a scruple, how destructive is the operation of a watery solution of oxygenated septon.

Thus, in the experiment of the chemist and dissector just mention-

D

ed, the septic acid makes destructive work upon *dead* bodies or their parts. So in the case of septic of silver (lunar caustic) applied as an escharotic, to destroy warts or proud flesh, the acid of putrefaction disengaged from the metal, decomposes or eats away the *living* substance. Both dead and living bodies, in this manner, yield to the destroying influence of this acid, which is engendered in the midst of corruption.

The absorption of the septic acid by lime, and the formation of calcareous nitre thereby, is a common process in all places where these two materials come within the sphere of each others attraction. Hence you can explain why human and other animal bodies buried in chalk and other forms of calcareous earth, last almost unchanged for many centuries. For the same reason, in some vaults and subterranean repositories of the dead, as in the catacombs near Rome and Naples, which you read of in the books of travels, the carcases of the deceased, though they have laid within their cells a long time, remain, to this day, in a state of remarkable preservation. And upon the same principle you may comprehend wherefore the corpse of any of your departed friends will be well guarded against putrefaction, by being surrounded by a coffin-full of chalk. There is no necessity of covering them with quick-lime. Hence also, I suppose, you may interpret the fact which you mentioned to me, from WIL-LICK's *lectures on diet and regimen*, (p. 316) that eggs are more effectually preserved from putrefaction by immersion in very strong lime-water, than by besmearing them with butter, packing them in bran or common salt, or hanging them in fresh river-water, or any other known mode.

I wish you would explain to the agriculturalists, that they are mistaken in supposing *lime* to operate

by promoting putrefaction in manures. The chief action of that earth is to saturate acids, and in so doing to form middle salts. When the septic acid is thus attracted and combined, it forms an excellent fertilizer of soil, but can no longer exercise, as before, its disorganizing power on the materials of the dung-heap. In this manner, the lime around our country-houses on Long-Island, assisted in blunting the acidity which, without its aid, might have injured the poplars, willows, and eglantines, you and I lately planted in their neighbourhood.

Use your influence, my dear girl, for mine I fear is not of consequence enough, with the officers of police, and magistrates of cities, to obtain an order for paving the streets of towns, and their side-walks, with *lime-stone* or some convenient *calcareous material*, instead of the *silicious stones* and *bricks* now generally in use. You may urge to them the necessity of having something to absorb the pernicious and pestilential acid of septon, so apt to be generated during hot summers in the atlantic cities of North-America; and assure them that such foul places as *Lisbon* and *Kilkenny*, are instructive examples of the extraordinary salubrity of calcareous materials for streets and buildings. You may inform them that the calcareous bottoms of *Curracoa*, and of *Grande Terre* in *Guadaloupe*, act most powerfully in preserving health, by absorbing the septic acid produced in these tropical islands. And convince them, if you can, that if *sand-stone* and *brick* must enter into the composition of the dwelling-houses in New-York, that they ought not only to be cemented and plaistered within with *mortar of lime*, but be *rough-cast on the outside with a composition of the same kind*. Proclaim it loud to all the people, that *calcareous earth* is plen-

tifully afforded by a benevolent providence, to preserve man from the miasmata, as they are called, of pestilence, and if he neglects to employ it in the houses and cities which he builds, and constructs them of other and improper materials, he must expect to suffer in this, as in other cases where he treats the manifestations of *the divine will* with contempt. Where the surface of the earth is *paved naturally* with calcareous earth, pestilential diseases are mild or rare: what then do reason and experience prompt to be done for guarding against their ravages, but to protect the settlements of men with an *artificial pavement* of a similar material?

Tell the physicians how *lime-water* has cured *dysenteries* and *ulcers* by moderating and blunting those corrosive fluids which, in both cases, had been formed by a combination of septon with oxygene, and either produced the respective diseases originally, or perpetuated and made them worse. Thus you may explain to them how *crab's-eyes*, *prepared chalk*, *levigated coral*, and other things of the same kind, work their good effects when internally administered.

It is very honourable to the fair sex, that they have long understood the practice of combating pestilence by calcareous earth, within their domestic precincts. When they can persuade the men (for I believe that, after all, the ladies must convince them) to employ *marble*, *limestone*, or some other similar material for their *houses* and *pavements*, and *chalk to envelope the bodies of the dead*, they will have accomplished some of the most important improvements in civilized society. Rejoice with me that the lady who can effect these wholesome regulations, shall have, not merely a stature of marble, like APOLLO, who slew Python, and HERCULES, that killed Hydra, erected to her honour, but

what is of far greater value, shall feel the consciousness of having employed science successfully in the cause of benevolence. And rejoice also that these things which have been hid from the *wise and prudent*, have been revealed unto babes.—Do these things, for I can have no doubt you fully participate my joy on another subject, which is, getting to the end of this uncommon sort of an epistle, though I cannot finish it without declaring to you with what sentiments of tenderness and attachment I am yours,

SAMUEL L. MITCHILL.

Memoirs of STEPHEN CALVERT.

[Continued from p. 215.]

THE perusal of these letters, and the reflections to which they gave birth, occupied the whole night. The new attractions which the image of this lady had acquired, and the expectation of a meeting the next day, filled me with intense musing, and a tremulous impatience. These tremors increased as the hour of her arrival approached, and I entered Wallace's house in a state of trepidation and embarrassment too painful to be long endured.

Such were the emotions which were excited in my heart by one whom I had never seen, and whose person and features I knew only by description. In this way did the lawless and wild enthusiasm of my character first display itself. I regarded my feelings with wonder and mortification. They reminded me of what I had read in the old poets, of heroes who wept away their lives for love, though the object of their passion had never been seen, and sometimes did not exist. These pictures, which Cervantes had taught me to ridicule or to disbelieve, I now regarded with alter-

ed eyes, and perceived that they were somewhat more than creatures of a crazed or perverse fancy.

On entering Wallace's parlour, my friend presented me to one whom he called my cousin. My confusion scarcely allowed me to receive her offered cheek, or to look at her. One glance, however, was sufficient to dissolve my dream, and quiet my emotion. I was restored, in a moment, to myself, and to indifference, and could scarcely persuade myself that this was the being whom my fancy had so luxuriantly and vividly portrayed.

She was diminutive in size, and without well turned, or well adjusted members or features. Her face was moulded with some delicacy, but it was scarred by the small-pox; and the defects of her skin, in smoothness, were not compensated by any lustre of complexion. Minute in size, inelegantly proportioned, dun in complexion, this figure was a contrast to what the vague encomiums of my friends, and my own active imagination had taught me to expect.

This disappointment created dejection, and even some degree of peevishness. I was absurdly disposed to quarrel with my friends for exciting, by their exaggerations, fallacious hopes; and not to have fulfilled these hopes, I regarded as a crime in my cousin. On this account, I not only despised, but secretly upbraided her. Reflection speedily cured me of this folly; and intercourse with the new-comer, by gradually unfolding her excellencies, fully reconciled me to her personal defects, or made me wholly overlook them.

This intercourse was without constraint, and almost without intermission. I saw her at all hours, and almost during every hour of the day. At home and abroad, in the company of strangers and friends,

at times of recreation and employment, her person and behaviour were exposed to my scrutiny: a temper capricious and uneven, timorous or irritable, impatient of delay or contradiction, and preferring her own gratification to that of others, never, at any moment, appeared. She smiled upon all, sought from every one the knowledge which he possessed, and betrayed solicitude to please and instruct her companion in her turn. Her mind was incessantly active in analyzing the object or topic that occurred, in weighing proofs, tracing inferences, and correcting her mistakes. She read much, but she talked more than she read, and meditated more than she talked. She frequently changed her place, her company, and her employments; but these changes wrought no difference in the ineffable complacency which dwelt in her eyes, in the activity of her thoughts, and the benevolent fervour of her expressions.

Me she admitted, in a moment, to familiarity and confidence. She talked to me of her own concerns, of her maxims of economy, her household arrangements, her social connections, her theories of virtue and duty, and related, with scrupulous fidelity, the history of her opinions and her friendships. This confidence did not flow from having ascertained my merits, or the assurance slowly and cautiously admitted, that her confessions would not be misunderstood, and would not be abused. She spake to me because I was within hearing, and only ceased to speak when interrupted by another, or to obtain replies to her questions. She was not more liberal of information respecting herself, than solicitous to obtain a knowledge of me. For this end she dealt not in circuities and hints, but employed direct questions, and inquired into my condition and

views, with all the openness and warmth with which she disclosed her own.

The thoughts which had occupied me most, related to herself. My design of gaining her love had been thwarted, or, at least, discouraged by first appearances. The transfer of her father's property, had been recommended by a sense of justice, but I will not deny that I was also influenced by other motives. These motives had governed me without my being fully conscious of their force. I had desired, by bestowing this benefit, to advance myself in her esteem; and I could scarcely conceal from myself that marriage would restore to me what I should thus have given away.

My feelings were now changed, and I found reasons for abandoning my purpose, or, at least, for delaying the execution of it. What I did not mean to perform, there seemed some reasons for concealing that I had ever intended. Though she frequently alluded to the event which had made me possessor of her father's property, interrogated me as to the condition of the land and servants, and tendered me her counsel and assistance in the use of it, she never gave proofs of being dissatisfied or disappointed by her father's will, of having imagined her own title superior to mine, or of imputing any meanness and guilt to my retention of it.

What her candour did not condemn, however, my own conscience disapproved. It was difficult to stifle my conviction of being actuated by selfish and ignoble views. I saw that I had formed this design upon improper motives, and had relinquished it from motives equally sordid. I had not only my own disapprobation to contend with, but was terrified by fear of that of others. I had incautiously mentioned this design to my mother and

to Wallace, and it would not be easy to account for, or apologize to them for this change in my plans. Still, however, my reluctance to give away so large a property to one, who, by her marriage, would give it to another, was too powerful to be subdued.

While my mind was in this state of indecision, I took occasion to visit my cousin one evening, on which she was alone. I had scarcely entered the apartment when I noticed some marks of disquiet in her features, which she immediately explained, by repeating the substance of a conversation which had just passed between Sydney and her. From him she had heard of the design I had formerly entertained respecting *Calverton*. "I have thus been informed," she continued, "that you intended to transfer my father's estate to me. Your motives, no doubt, were generous, and founded on an high opinion of my worth. You have not executed this design, nor, since my arrival, have even mentioned it to my friend or to me. I cannot help feeling some anxiety on this account. If I had not received your earnest assurances that your prepossessions in my favour have been fulfilled, and even greatly surpassed, I should ascribe this change in your plans, to the discovery of some unworthiness in me. This belief I cannot admit, after having listened to so many encomiums from your lips, and yet I am at a loss to account for it in any other manner. A sort of half-formed suspicion has found its way into my heart, that——shall I tell you what I think, even when my thoughts are disadvantageous to you? I cannot help suspecting you of some caprice or some faultiness. I have hitherto found you, or imagined you, an excellent youth; I loved, I exulted in your virtues, such as I have known them, by means of your mother's report, and such as I have

witnessed them myself. To have formed this design, argued more generosity than I had ascribed to you; but to have relinquished it when once formed, evinces either a blameable fickleness or a laudable sagacity. From which of these it flows, I know not. I want to esteem you more than I do, but I am afraid, when I come to be acquainted with the true motives on which you have acted, I shall find reason for esteeming you less. Pray, my friend, let me know the truth."

While saying this her eyes were fixed with great earnestness on my face. They even glistened with tears. I was affected in a singular manner. These proofs of a tender and sublime interest in my happiness and virtue, affected me with pleasure, while the consciousness of the truth of her suspicions covered me with shame.

I had a difficult part to act. To acknowledge the truth, would, indeed, lower me in her opinion; a circumstance not less distressful to her than to me. To pretend that I was influenced by disinterested considerations, and by a sort of refined, though perhaps erroneous regard to her happiness, which her present frugal competence would more essentially promote, than the possession of extensive and cumbrous property; to insinuate that I had only delayed, in consequence of some fictitious obstacles, the execution of my purpose, would have been grossly culpable. I was fortunately extricated from this embarrassment by the entrance of a neighbour, whose prolix loquacity consumed the whole evening, and allowed me to withdraw before any further explanation could take place.

This incident led my thoughts into a new direction. It seemed as if the option of doing or forbearing was taken away. My reputation was made to depend upon my conduct, and the rebukes and con-

tempts of my mother, of Sydney, and of the lady herself, were to be shunned at a greater price than this. I was determined, with whatever reluctance, to execute my first purpose.

My reluctance did not flow from any single source. Power and property are intrinsically valuable, and I loved them for their own sake, as well as for the sake of the good which they would enable me to confer upon others. I was willing to obviate all the necessities of this woman, but desired to retain the means in my own hands. I did not love her, but I drew pain from thinking of her as belonging to another. I did not wish her to be mine, but I believed that no human being was so worthy to possess her as myself. To enrich her, would be merely enriching some being who, at present, was unknown, and whom, when known, I was sure that I should hate and despise.

The necessity to which I had reduced myself of giving, and the aversion which the conception of her marriage with another produced, led me, at length, to reflect upon the scheme of seeking her myself. To reconcile myself to this scheme, I ruminated on her unrivalled and inestimable qualities. I said, I must not expect to meet with any one equally excellent. She is destitute of beauty, but what is beauty? It is transient and perishable. Time or indisposition destroys it, and its power over the senses depends upon its novelty. Conjugal familiarity never fails, in a very short period, to dissolve the charm. The true foundation of love is placed in the moral character, and the assurance of being requited with affection. To know that I am beloved by a being like this, will unavoidably excite that passion in me; but, if it did not, still my regard for the happiness of such a woman ought to determine my choice. I believe

that she already loves me, and it is my duty to ascertain the truth; and, in some sort, to abide by her decision.

Meanwhile to offer her this estate, which truly belongs not to me, but to her, is my first province. In doing this, all allusions to wedlock or love should be carefully excluded. They may, in a due interval, properly succeed, but ought not to accompany the offer. To proffer money and love, in the same moment, is ridiculous. It would appear like bribing her affections, and is absurd, since it would be equivalent to taking back with one hand what we bestow with the other.

But how shall I account for my delay? She knows that I once conceived this design, and have since apparently relinquished it. My motives have, I fear, been selfish or ambiguous, and I cannot prevail upon myself to disclose them. The truth must be palliated or disguised. Some adequate apology must be invented. It was in vain, however, that I sought for some apology which would answer my end, without a greater breach of truth than my honesty would allow me to commit.

At length it occurred to me, that since I had resolved to tender her my hand, there was no sufficient reason for deferring the tender. I neither expected nor desired stronger evidence of her intellectual excellence than I at present possessed. If she loved me, the sooner her anxieties were at an end, the more should I consult her happiness. If her affection were desirable, upon the whole, the sooner it was ascertained and secured, the better. Besides, since an apology for my delay must be found, none was more plausible than that it arose from my having entertained a passion, which, if crowned with success, would render my intended gift unnecessary and absurd.

Such was the train of my reflections, in my way homeward from the interview, which I have just described. When I left the house, no conception was more distant from my wishes than marriage with my cousin, but before I reached my lodging, a total reverse had taken place in my sentiments and views. This reverse was of too much moment not to engross my deepest thoughts. I entered my chamber and threw myself on the bed. As soon as I came to reflect upon this union, as on somewhat that was destined to happen, I was industrious in tracing its consequences and revolving its benefits. Insensibly my fancy became heated, I grew impatient of delay; I shuddered at the obstacles to my success that time might produce, and at those which might, at that moment, secretly exist. I endeavoured to bury my forebodings and anxieties in sleep, but sleep would not be summoned.

At length I started on my feet, and exclaimed, Why should I endure this uncertainty a moment? Why should I impose it on another? A mutual understanding may be accomplished next month or next week; but cannot it be, with more propriety, effected to-morrow? and if to-morrow, why not to-night? No event can be more disastrous and intolerable than suspense; and this hour, when the Wallaces are gone to their repose, and Louisa has withdrawn to her chamber, not to sleep, but to brood over the tormenting images of my depravity, may terminate suspense, and stifle suspicion, and overwhelm the heart of this angelic woman with joy.

She does not go to bed till twelve. In such a moonlight night as this she is probably seated at her chamber window, which is lifted, and which overlooks the street. Hence it will be easy to obtain audience; and the conference to which I sum-

mon her will be worthy of the sacred silence and solemnity attendant on it.

Fraught with this idea, I left my chamber and the house, and speeded towards the street where Wallace resided. The air was mild and the moonlight brilliant, and many persons were seated at their doors and in their porches, gaily conversing, and inhaling the breeze, whose grateful influence had been enhanced by the fervours of the past day.

My expectations of seeing Louisa at the window were fulfilled. Her voice was coarse and monotonous, and wholly unadapted to music; but she was, nevertheless, fond of the art, and, when alone, was accustomed to sing. This, at present, was her occupation, and though its influence was unpleasing, inasmuch as it reminded me of her deficiency in an art, upon skill in which my imagination had been used to set the highest value; it likewise delighted me, by denoting her presence at the window.

On recognizing my voice she betrayed no small surprize. My request to be admitted to an interview was immediately granted. She came down stairs, and, opening the street door, went with me into a back parlour. This meeting, said she, is very singular and unexpected. Something of no very trivial import must have induced you to come hither at such an hour. Pry'thee tell me the cause.

To explain the cause was a task of some delicacy. Her own quickness of perception, however, supplied my want of perspicuity; and the ardour of her own feelings made her overlook the fluctuations and coldness which the neutral state of my affections could not but produce in my tone and deportment. That she loved me was a suspicion not admitted without plausible evidence; but the transports of her tenderness,

the sobs which convulsed her bosom, and took away all utterance, surpassed those bounds which my imagination had assigned to it.

These appearances were not anticipated. It cannot be said that they excited pain, but they were contemplated without rapture. I was conscious to a kind of disapprobation, of which the inertness and insensibility of my own heart were the objects. I believed that I ought to have partaken in her transports; that the merits of this being, and the value of her love, were such as to make my near approaches to indifference a crime. In circumstances that ought to have been pregnant with delight, my complex feelings were tinged with dejection.

At this moment our attention was called away by a distant and faint sound. It was the murmur of confused and unequal voices, mingling, and, at each moment, growing louder and more distinct. Presently a tolling bell was heard. The sounds were, at first, slow, and at long intervals; but suddenly the strokes succeeded each other with more rapidity, and other *larums* were rung in different quarters. The sounds gradually approached the door. The pavement without was beaten by innumerable footsteps, and the fearful warning, ascending from a thousand mouths, was *Fire! Fire!*

I was confounded and dismayed by this uproar. I had never witnessed this disaster in a populous city, and my fancy had connected with it innumerable images of tumult and horror. I knew not the place or the limits of the danger, and gazed around me as if it were uncertain whether the room in which we stood was incircled by the blaze.

From this stupor I was roused by my companion, who knew nothing but compassion for the sufferers, and who implored me to fly to their relief.

Who? Where? Whither must I fly?

Go into the street: run whichever way the crowd runs.

I obeyed without parley or delay; and, rushing into the street, allowed myself to be carried along by the stream. Presently I turned a corner, and saw, far before me, red gleams, wavering on the roofs and walls, and luminous smoke, rolling in immense volumes above.

I ran forward with speed. Presently I drew near the house that was in flames. The space before it was crowded with gazers, whose tongues were active in augmenting the clamour, while their hands seemed totally unoccupied. I pressed forward with eagerness, though actuated merely by an impetuous curiosity, till I reached a narrow interval between the walls of the building and the middle of the street. This space was ankle-deep in water, supplied by the pumps and engines, which had been drained without success. It was, besides, scarcely tenable from the heat. Beams, and fragments from the roof were incessantly falling around it. No danger, therefore, was more imminent; and the crowd kept aloof.

I had scarcely breathed, after reaching the verge of this space, when I noticed a ladder, raised against the wall, and leaning on a window at the third story. No one ascended it, from fear, as I hastily collected from the exclamations of those near me, that the roof would sink before he who should be adventurous enough to enter the house should have time to leave it. I found, likewise, that some one was imagined to be asleep in that chamber.

I was not qualified to judge of the progress which the fire had made, or on what ground this apprehension was built. Had I deliberately consulted my reason, I should, doubtless, have continued

to hover at a cowardly distance from the scene of peril; but the impulse that governed me was headlong and irresistible: It pushed me forward, and I began to mount the ladder. In vain a thousand voices called upon me to *come down*, and exclaimed that the roof was already falling. I was deaf to their clamours; and, having gained the top, dashed through the window, which, on the outside, could not have been lifted easily, or with sufficient expedition.

The apartment was nearly filled with smoke, which, by my being suddenly immersed in it, had nearly stifled me. Nothing was distinctly visible; but, stretching forth my hands, I threw myself forward at random. I reached a bed, and laid my hands upon a sleeper. It was wonderful that the uproar of men, and the crackling of flames, had not awakened her. I had almost dragged her from the bed before she opened her eyes, and became sensible of her situation.

I had no need of words to explain her danger, or of arguments to prevail on her to fly with me. She had only to regain possession of her senses, to look around her and to listen. The stair-case and the roof were wrapt in flames. The fire had already taken hold of her chamber door. The lingering of a moment would have been fatal both to her and to me. Snatching her up in both arms, I hurried to the window, and, darting out of it, had nearly reached the bottom of the ladder when the roof fell in. A cloud of sparkles and cinders flew upward, and on every side. The concussion shook the ladder from its place. I fell, but was fortunate enough to reach the ground upon my feet.

By this time the strength of my companion was exhausted, and she fainted. I did not perceive her situation till, having dragged her through the crowd, who opened

me a passage, I reached the steps of an opposite house. Here I paused to collect my thoughts and examine the state of my companion.

We were immediately surrounded by several persons, who offered their assistance. One of them, pointing to an house at some distance, and which was not likely to be injured by the fire, desired that the woman might be carried thither. At the same time he applied to a bystander who, as it appeared, lived in the house, at the door of which we were seated, for a blanket or cloak, in which we might wrap the naked limbs of the sufferer. A cloak was instantly furnished, and the woman, still insensible, was carried in the arms of several persons, to the house before pointed out.

During these transactions, I was nearly passive. An asylum being thus provided for this woman, and succour being thus amply and readily bestowed by others, there was need of no new exertion from me. I had done my part, and it now behoved me to attend to my own safety. Coals and cinders had lighted on my clothes, and penetrated, in several places, to my flesh. The pain, hence produced, was acute. I had likewise, in my incautious haste to regain the ladder, after having entered the room, struck my head against the side of the window, with such violence, as appeared to have left no slight contusion behind it. I felt myself, however, able to move, and believed it proper to return home with as much expedition as possible. I quickly extricated myself from the crowd, whose curiosity and solicitude were more engaged by the woman's condition than by mine, and stopped not till I reached my chamber.

On examining my wounds, I found them to be of small moment, and to be such as to stand in no need of nurse or physician. The pain could be allayed by simple ap-

plications within my reach, and I forbore to disturb any of the family. Being remote from the danger, it had not interrupted their repose, and they were wholly unconscious of my motions.

After some time, the tumult of my spirits subsided, and I had leisure to reflect upon the extraordinary occurrences that had just happened. They appeared more like the transitions of a feverish vision, than the sober changes of reality. The being whom I had saved from destruction, was a woman. This I had been able to infer, not only from a rapid view of her face and person, but also from her shrieks, whose acute tones sufficiently denoted her sex. Closed eyes and the wanness of death, were not all that the pale reflection of the flames enabled me to discover during the few moments in which she lay in my arms. There were features, and neck, and bosom, which were stamp'd upon my memory and fancy, in eternal characters. Though seen for an instant, they refused to disappear, and the image was so vivid that I almost stretched forth my hand to discover whether it were not really before me.

What were the lines and hues of this image? Did they coincide with those delineations of ideal beauty by which my solitary hours had been occupied? They were different from all that I had imagined or witnessed. They burst upon my senses with all the enchantments attendant upon novelty as well as loveliness.

But though I had seen her so nearly, she was probably profoundly ignorant of me. Involved in darkness and smoke, she saw me not in her chamber; and, before she reached a station where my features could have been distinctly noticed, she was sunk into insensibility. Some of those around me might have had previous acquaint-

ance with my person, but it was more probable that I was totally unknown to the nearest spectators. I had lately arrived in the city, and my intercourse was chiefly limited to Sydney and the Wallaces.

I scarcely know how to convey to you just ideas of so motly a character as mine was, in my juvenile days. I was the slave of phantasies and contradictions. My preceptors were books. These were of such a kind as to make me wise in speculation, but absurd in practice. I had blended the illusions of poetry with the essences of science. My mind was fertile in reasoning and invention, and my theory was not incorrect; but my practical notions of happiness and dignity, were full of imbecility and folly. The idol which my heart secretly worshipped, and to which I habitually annexed every excellent and splendid attribute, was love. I snatched glimpses of a better kind of devotion, that which is paid to science, to ambition, to the happiness of mankind; but these were transient in their influence.

According to my custom, I was now busy in tracing the consequences to which this incident might lead: in reflecting on the emotions which the lady, on recovering from her swoon, and obtaining a knowledge of the means of her rescue, might admit into her bosom; and on the effects which an interview between us was likely to produce.

The pleasure which I found in these reveries, was quickly damped by remembering that sacred engagement into which I had entered with my cousin, and on the importance to her happiness of my adherence to that engagement. I likewise thought upon those obstacles which fortune, or parents, or a previous marriage, might raise between me and this new acquaintance. These thoughts made my soul droop. I

began to upbraid my precipitation with regard to my cousin; to consider my proffer of love before it was actually felt, as a criminal imposture, no less injurious to myself than unjust to her.

The mind is ingenious in inventing topics of consolation. Gradually my thoughts returned to the contemplation of my cousin's excellence, of the seldomness of any union between personal and mental beauty, and of the preference which the latter might always claim over the former. I was likewise wise enough to discern the danger that would flow from intercourse with this unknown person; the tendency of gratitude for so signal a benefit, to produce a more fervent passion, and the hazard of yielding to temptation, which my unfortified virtue might incur. For these reasons I determined to decline all intercourse with this female, and to foster, by every means, that affection for Louisa to which she was so well entitled.

Next day the topics of general conversation were, of course, connected with the late fire. Wallace had been roused by the alarm, but had arrived upon the spot sometime after I had retired from it. His inquiries had made him acquainted with most of the particulars which have just been mentioned, but no clue had been afforded by which to ascertain the person of him who had exposed his life to so imminent an hazard.

Sydney had likewise been upon the spot. His knowledge was equally imperfect. I withheld the knowledge which I possessed, being much amused with the speculations and comments that were made in my hearing. I could not but remark the numberless deviations from truth which the story exhibited in passing from one mouth to the other. A score of eye-witnesses communicated each a different tale,

and a different description of my person. I was sometimes a youth, sometimes middle-aged. To no two observers was my garb precisely of the same colour and form; and one person solemnly maintained, on the evidence of a pair of eyes whose acuteness had, in this instance, been assisted by spectacles, that I was a negro man, about forty, who was formerly a slave of his own, and whom he had sought out and *handsomely* rewarded for his courage. It must be added, indeed, that this witness had not acquired much reputation for veracity.

I was much more inquisitive as to the character and condition of the family who occupied this mansion. I was told that it consisted of two old ladies and a female servant. The latter was she whom I had rescued from destruction. Her mistresses had seasonably escaped, and their confusion and terror had made them overlook, for some time, the danger of their waiting-maid. This being, at length, recollected, some persons had gone so far as to raise the ladder to the window, but their fears would not suffer them to mount it. There were some who confidently reported that the rescuer of the girl, was no other than her lover, a journeyman carpenter and a well-disposed youth, who merited, on this occasion, a public recompense.

So! the nymph whom my imagination had deified, and whose presence I was to shun with as much care as Ulysses shut his ears against the song of the syrens, proved to be nothing more than a waiting-maid, who, though not an unsightly girl, was affirmed to be illiterate and coarse in manners and sentiments. I was sufficiently disposed to question the truth of this intelligence; but these facts were not equally liable to misrepresentation and mistake, as those which related to me;

and were supported by no unpalatable evidence.

The flitting and ambiguous light in which she had been viewed, and her state of insensibility, had probably decorated her, to my eye, with so many fictitious charms. I drew a useful lesson from this discovery. I learned to condemn the vagaries of my fancy, and to place more reliance on experience. My secret struggles and fantastic regrets, which my reason had been unable to subdue, were now at an end. The idol I had worshipped proved to be a worthless stock; and I returned, with satisfaction, to the path of love and of honour to which my cousin had invited me.

Some days after, on entering Sydney's apartment, he pointed out a paragraph, in the gazette of the day, in which were these words: "We learn that the person who so bravely exposed his life for the sake of a fellow creature, at the late fire in High-street, is Mr. Felix Calvert, a young gentleman lately from Europe." This paragraph put an end to my concealment; and my narrative of this transaction afforded to Louisa and my friends a topic of much curiosity and congratulation. The assertion of my late arrival from Europe was a new proof of the fallacy of rumour; and I took no pains either to confute this error, or to detect the means by which my concern in this affair had been discovered.

Some time afterwards I was accidentally enabled to trace the channel through which this information had reached the printer. A young negro, who belonged to *Calverton*, had spent the night of this conflagration abroad. He had excused his absence to my steward, by feigning that he watched by the side of a sick slave, belonging to a neighbouring plantation. In truth, he spent it at a carousal in the city.

Three days after this event, he was standing in the market-place, chattering with great vivacity to a companion. Their discourse was overheard by an apprentice in the office of the Weekly Gazette, who stopped near them to purchase a melon. It appeared that *Cuff* was relating what had passed at the fire, of which he was a witness. When he reached the incident of mounting the ladder, he continued thus:

Ou' pop a man! uppa de latha like a rat. Ob bobs! what de debble! *Prime*, says I, is'n da massa Cavut? No! ees! ees! it ee massa Cavut. What de debble if ee see me? teh Ceesa gim me floggin! Way! scampa! scud!

No, no, says *Prime*: top; he be kill. Run uppa de latha. Massa Cavut sure enough.

So I top. Ebba body olla, Downa, downa! Massa Cavut no ere em: run uppa lika querril up oaka tree. No debble runna like im. In ee pop. No liffa de winda, but in ee pop, trough glass and all. *Quash!* ebba body olla. *Prime* olla. Me olla mo dan ebba body—O massa Cavut! massa Cavut!—Massa Cavut era no body bum me. So ou' pop massa wid 'oman in 'is 'and. Down de latha ee runna, mo fass dan ebba—'oman in 'is 'and 'till. Den I runna too; fear ee see me: teh Ceesa gim me floggin.

Pray, said the apprentice, who are you talking of, Blackee? the man who got the girl out of the window t'other night, at the fire? Do you know who he was?

Be sure I do. He my massa: ung massa Cavut. He be lif oba Kukill. I be lif wid im. He be come estaday oba de watta.

Massa Cavut was translated by a market-man, who lived near Chester, into Mr. Felix Calvert: and this intelligence being transferred to the printer, it found its way, by his contrivance, to the public.—Thus, though many different repre-

sentations will be given of every incident, yet it may always be, that one among the number shall be true.

This event and its consequences were, in a short time, generally forgotten. It determined the colour of my destiny; but the period was not yet arrived when I was enabled to discern the extent of its influence. Meanwhile my thoughts were occupied by schemes of love and happiness. Each day admitted me to a nearer view of the mental beauties of my cousin, afforded new proofs of the warmth of her affection, and gave new tenderness to my own feelings.

There is but one goal to which the wishes of lovers point. Having ascertained the mutual existence of love, and no impediment arising from considerations of fortune, all that remained was marriage. Having proceeded thus far, I was eager to accomplish the remainder; and a suitable opportunity occurring, I disclosed to her my wishes.

Either the vulgar portraits of women are groundless and absurd, or my cousin's deportment was an exception to those rules which ordinarily influence her sex. I am disposed to adopt the former opinion, having rarely found any of those distinctions that abound in books exemplified in real life. Woman has been painted as a mass of scruples and doubts; as studying concealments and disguises; as inviting and withdrawing from importunities; as perpetually distrusting the tendency of her feelings, and sifting the professions of her lover; as wishing, and deferring the attainment of her wishes when fully in her power; as practising a thousand stratagems and frauds, and cloaking her hypocrisy under the specious names of dignity; self-respect; modest reserve.

We are taught to expect that a woman will assiduously counterfeit indifference till the man has avowed

his affection; that the secret of her heart, instead of spontaneously flowing to her lips, can only be extorted; that tremours, flutterings, and misgivings; a proneness to recede and delay, are to accompany every act of condescension, and every acquiescence in necessity; that these are feminine attributes, and are not only dictated by reason and duty, but are interwoven with the female constitution.

My teachers and guides had been the coiners of fiction; the preachers of duplicity; the moralists who talk of virtue as of one thing in man and another thing in woman; of mind as modified by sexual differences, like the hue of a skin and the texture of a muscle; and of duty and decorum as prescribing an opposite demeanor in similar circumstances.

Hitherto my theories had been only thwarted and contradicted by the conduct of my cousin. Love had made no inroad on her candour and her unreserve. Her preference of my society, even before she had reason to suppose me a lover, was never concealed. Her eyes sparkled with new pleasure on my entrance: her attention seldom strayed from my countenance and words: her anxiety at any token of disquiet in me was openly expressed; and once, on a sudden meeting, she so far overstept the customary boundaries, as to wrap me in her arms and kiss my cheek. No self-reproof or blushful consciousness ensued this act of unguarded tenderness, though, indeed, it took place without a witness.

Knowing the benevolence of her temper, her perfect artlessness, and her assurance of her own rectitude, I was doubtful for a time whether to ascribe these appearances to more than friendship. I imagined that love was the parent of reserve and dissimulation; that it would produce a seeming unwillingness to

answer my inquiries or comment upon my theories; that she should desire my exclusive company, but labour to conceal that desire, and so manage, that the attainment of her purpose should always appear to flow from accident; that her expressions, when addressed to others, should be fluent and unstudied, but, to me, should be selected with caution, and uttered with some degree of hesitation; attention, when least apparent, should be most powerful, and when she listened with most eagerness, her eyes should seem most occupied by a different object.

On this occasion my vague prognostics were no less totally confuted. My intimations were understood before they were fully expressed. They obtained not a dubious acquiescence, but a vehement assent. It was unwise to defraud herself of the happiness of wedlock by the least delay. Next week was a period preferable to next month; to-morrow was still more to be desired. Nay, she would eagerly concur in the ratification of this contract on that very night. Domestic arrangements might *follow* with as much convenience and propriety as *precede*. The house of Wallace would be glad to receive me as a more permanent guest.

She hated the ostentations and formalities attendant on the rite of marriage. These made her regard, with some timidity, that which, on its own account, was productive of nothing but good. Why not lay these aside with the contempt which they deserved? Why tolerate a longer delay, or pass through more forms than were absolutely indispensable?

Her good friend, Mr. Aylford, knew of the engagement of her heart. She owed a visit to that reverend and excellent man. Let us begone this moment, she continued, and seek him in his closet, where he is busy in preparing the religious exercises of to-morrow. Let us

claim his immediate assistance in uniting us beyond the power of fate to dissolve the union. We need not leave his house till to-morrow, when we will return hither, and afford you the opportunity of introducing to the Wallaces your *wife*.

I was almost startled by the abruptness and novelty of this proposal. Its adventurous singularity, however, was congenial with my character, and I eagerly assented to it. But where, said I, shall a witness be procured? Mr. Aylford will not be willing to dispense with the presence of another.

Neither would I be willing. A witness must doubtless be had, and that witness shall be Sydney. His approbation and his presence are wholly indispensable on an occasion like this.

At this moment Sydney entered the room. The lady, with her usual confidence in his affection, repeated the proposal which she had just made.

While thus employed I diligently observed the countenance of Sydney. I had never forgotten that he was once the lover of this woman. It was inconceivable that love so rational should have wholly disappeared. That Sydney, whose talents and integrity were revered by Louisa, should never have gained a place in her affections, had always appeared an inexplicable problem in my eyes; but it was still more difficult to comprehend how the love which Sydney had once admitted could have ceased to exist, when the intercourse between them, and the interchange of good offices, continued the same, and when no new passion had arisen to supplant the old.

I had seen, in him, however, no tokens of uneasiness or jealousy. He had marked the progress of our mutual passion with tranquil approbation. He had spoken of it with

an air of serene contentment; and his frankness and affectionate demeanor, as well as his general cheerfulness, appeared not to have been lessened, but augmented by this event.

On the present occasion, he smiled, and said, I believe your wishes cannot be gratified to-night, unless some other clergyman will answer your purposes as well as Mr. Aylford, for he left town this morning, and will not return till to-morrow evening.

Louisa declared it impossible for any other to supply his place, and professed her willingness to defer the ceremony till the morrow. On the whole, said she, it will be best. Mrs. Wallace would censure me with justice for taking so momentous a step, not only without her company, but without her knowledge. You, Sydney, and she, shall accompany us to-morrow to Mr. Aylford's, and be witnesses of the happiness of your friends.

Some incident now occurred to separate the company, and put an end to our discourse. I returned to my lodgings, and, till the next morning allowed me to visit my cousin, passed a wakeful and feverish interval. The coming event I regarded with tumultuous impatience. So far from being able to sleep, it was impossible to enjoy a moment's rest. My limbs bore me mechanically to and fro. I marked the vibrations of the pendulum, and eyed the index of the clock as it stepped from one second to another. Time, surely, has no measurer but the progress of our own sensations. Fear and hope will prolong days into years, while the oblivion of insanity or sleep leaps over days and years as if they were not.

Every moment seemed to annihilate some hazard that beset me, while, for one peril that it removed, several were created anew. As I approached the period that should

accomplish my felicity, my terrors were augmented. While fettered by these panicks, I seemed conscious of the folly of my bondage; that it existed only in my own imagination; that my eyes were deceived by mists which a single penetrating and vigorous glance would utterly dispel. Still the effort could not be made or could not be sustained. If the mist vanished for a moment, it returned in the next moment, harder to dispel, and more pregnant with monsters and chimeras than before.

The sun consoled me, at length, and encouraged me by his presence. Earlier than usual I hastened to Wallace's house. All the disasters that are incident to man, had infested my nocturnal reveries. A thousand evils impended over my cousin, any one of which was sufficient to raise an insuperable barrier between us. Fire might lurk in the walls or floors of her dwelling; it might burst forth in the midst of her security, as on the occasion formerly mentioned. Danger might assail her from within. At this moment she might be seized with the pangs of a mortal disease, and death might snatch her from my arms.

Short-sighted wretch! The evil which thou dreadedst, was that which was to take this woman from thy possession. Whence but from some casualty or some disease, could this evil flow? That any moral impediment could arise, never occurred to thy conceptions. In thy widest and most lawless excursions, the possibility of treachery or change in this woman, of prevention or delay from moral considerations, never entered thy thought. All that knew us, were apprized of our mutual passion; all whose approbation was of value, were lavish of their approbation; all to whom Louisa was accustomed to apply for counsel, had been strenuous in their commendations of her choice. My mother had expressed her delight

at the prospect of obtaining this woman for her son; had testified impatience at delay, and was eager to receive us under her roof. There were no bounds to the reverence and love which Louisa entertained for my mother. To contribute to her happiness, had almost been an irresistible motive for accepting the son, though her own heart had been neutral; but her heart added to untainted fidelity and probity, an affection that was unacquainted with restraint, and all her wishes were absorbed in that of being indissolubly and speedily united to her cousin. What then but some jarring of the elements, some shock of nature, some coincidence of physical disasters, could raise an impediment in the way of my hopes?

As I approached the house, my fears subsided; no vestiges of earthquake or fire were to be seen. The house exhibited the usual tokens of safety and tranquillity. As I reached the door, Sydney came forth. We accosted each other with smiling civility. His cheerful brow dissipated any remnant of uneasiness that was not already removed.

I found Louisa alone in an upper room. She was sitting in a museful posture, leaning on her hand. For a moment my heart faltered with doubt, whether this was the attitude of thoughtfulness or dejection. On my entrance she looked up, and I perceived that she had been weeping. She assumed a tranquil appearance at my approach, but there were tokens of constraint sufficiently visible.

My heart sunk within me at this reception. I scarcely opened my lips to bid her good morrow, but placing myself by her side, waited, in fearful silence, for an explanation of this scene. At length, in the confusion of my thoughts, I muttered some inquiry respecting her health.

"No," said she, "I am not well. Sick: heart-sick."

"Good heaven! What is the cause?"

"The want of fortitude; the want of virtue. A sacrifice is claimed at my hands, which my pusillanimity does not hinder me from making, but I cannot make it cheerfully. My reluctance, the growth of folly and passion, refuses to yield."

"Of what sacrifice do you speak? Louisa Calvert is equal to the performance of her duty."

"Yes, but she is unequal to the seasonable discovery and steadfast apprehension of her duty. I saw it clearly a few minutes ago, but now it is misty and ambiguous. I waver, and I see that my waverings proceed from cowardice and passion. This does not render me steadfast. It does not restore my resolution. It only heaps anguish and misery on my head."—Saying this, her looks betrayed the deepest distress.

My alarms were importunate; and, at length, throwing herself, with a burst of tears, into my arms, she continued: "not for me only, my friend, but for thee also, do my tears flow. Self-denial is a lesson which I learned in my infancy, and in my father's house. The school of disappointment and adversity has taught me long ago what you are beginning to learn."

This was a terrible prelude. She proceeded; but I anticipated the stroke she was about to inflict.

"This evening was fixed for the period of our union, but that union must be deferred for many years, perhaps for ever."

"How say you? For ever?"

"All engagements between us are at an end. They must not be renewed in less than five years. Meanwhile, you must comply with your cousin's invitation, and go to Europe."

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"To Europe? Must comply? What language is this? Yesterday you knew it not? What phrenzy has seized you? The contract that made you mine is sacred; and all that remains to perfect it must be performed this very day. I do not solicit your compliance, but exact it. You have bereaved yourself of the power of retracting, and are bound to my mother, to myself, to your friends, by an irrevocable promise."

"Alas! be it sacred or not, it can never be performed. It was made while ignorant of consequences; ignorant of my duty; I am now enlightened upon that head, and have uttered my unalterable resolution."

I was lost in astonishment at the causes that produced this change. For a time I persisted in denying that such a change had taken place. She was not anxious to convince me of the truth by loud exclamations. Her mournful silence, and her tears, were sufficient indications that the scheme of my felicity was blasted by some untoward event or malignant counsellor. My entreaties to be told by whom these resolutions were suggested, and on what motives they were built, were answered in broken accents, and reluctantly.

"I am not able to repeat the reasons which were urged. I only know that they were valid; that they enjoin upon us a temporary and, perhaps, an eternal separation."

"Who was the reasoner who has made such stupendous discoveries; who has taught you to act against your promise, against the dictates of your own reason, the expectations and opinions of the world; and what motives could his accursed ingenuity invent sufficient to sway you?"

"Talk not thus vehemently. If this reasoner has erred, I have erred no less. While censuring him, you censure me. I was indulging

my gay visions this morning, when Sydney came and besought an interview. The reasons which he laid before me, for postponing my marriage and dissolving the engagement between us were just."

"Sydney? Carlton? He desuade you from marriage? What motives could he urge?"

"I am not qualified to explain

them, in the present state of my feelings. I should not state them clearly and impartially. If you will go to him, he will tell you what has passed. He wishes to confer with you on this subject."

"His wishes shall be instantly gratified. I will go to him immediately."

(To be continued.)

American Review.

ART. XV.

AMERICAN BIOGRAPHY; or an Historical Account of those Persons who have been distinguished in America, as Adventurers, Statesmen, Philosophers, Divines, Warriors, Authors, and other remarkable Characters. Comprehending a recital of the Events connected with their Lives and Actions. By Jeremy Belknap, D.D. Vol. I. & II. 8vo. pp. 892. Boston. Thomas and Andrews. 1798.

THOUGH the former of these volumes was published several years before the latter, and although, on this account, it scarcely comes within the period assigned as the limit of our retrospection in this review, yet, considering the important character of each, and the close connection which they sustain to each other, it has been judged best to comprize them both in this article; especially as the unity of their design, and the similarity of their execution, will render the same remarks, in substance, applicable to both.

Dr. Belknap had a peculiar taste for historical researches. This led him, after finishing his principal work, "The History of New-Hampshire," still to pursue his inquiries into the antiquities of his

native country. And aware that biography is one of the most interesting and attractive modes of conveying instruction and information, he adopted this method to diversify the track of the student, and to give an agreeable form to what would otherwise be esteemed dry and insipid food, and fit for the antiquary alone. The American republic of letters is not a little indebted to the labours of this respectable and industrious Divine. We feel deep regret on being reminded, by these volumes, that his laudable pursuits are terminated by death. The friends of religion, of literature, and of humanity, must long deplore the loss of such a man, in the midst of a career of usefulness and honour.

The first volume of this work opens with a discourse, or preliminary dissertation, "on the circumnavigation of Africa by the ancients, and its probable consequence, the population of some part of America." In this dissertation, after examining and comparing the various accounts and opinions which he had been able to meet with on the subject, Dr. Belknap expresses a full belief, that the Phœnicians, on an expedition undertaken by order of Necho, king of Egypt, sailed round the continent of Africa, more than six hundred years before the

christian æra; and that not long afterwards, the same voyage was performed by some Carthaginian adventurers, who planted colonies on the western shore of Africa. From these facts, which he assumes as too well attested to admit of doubt, and also from the circumstances attending the discovery of the Canary Islands, by the Carthaginians, which he considers as equally well established, he infers the probability, that some of the ancient circumnavigators of Africa, or some of the people who had inhabited these islands, before they were visited by the voyagers of Carthage, were impelled, by counter currents and tempests, within the verge of the trade winds, and thus brought to the continent or islands of America. Dr. B. however, thinks that no argument can be drawn from hence in favour of a mutual intercourse between the new and old world, in early times. He supposes that the same causes which drove these ancient navigators to this quarter of the globe, effectually prevented their return; and left them either to perish, or to form some of those settlements which were afterwards discovered: And concludes, by observing, that those who would prove that America was known to the ancients, must produce better evidence than they have yet produced, if they contend for any other knowledge than what was acquired by casual discoverers who never returned.

The preliminary dissertation is followed by a chronological detail of adventures and discoveries, made by the European nations in America, before the establishment of the council of Plymouth, in 1620. This table exhibits a compendious and valuable view of the succession of voyagers and discoverers.

Dr. B. then proceeds to the main object of his work. The subjects of

his biographical sketches are arranged in the following order.

1. **BIRON**, a Norman, who early in the eleventh century, accidentally discovered a country, which was afterwards called *Winland*, and is supposed to be a part of the island of *Newfoundland*.

2. **MADOC**, son of Owen Gwyneth, a prince of North Wales, who, about the year 1170, emigrated from his native country, and as it is supposed, landed on the coast of America.

3. **ZENO**, a Venetian, who gives an account of an island, called *Esotiland*, (said to be *Labrador*, or *Newfoundland*) discovered by a fisherman, as early as A. D. 1358.

4. **CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS**, a Genoese, who, in 1492, sailing in the service of Spain, discovered the clusters of islands, which are called *Bahamas* and *Antilles*; who, in a second voyage the next year, discovered the Caribbee islands; and who, in a third voyage, in 1498, discovered the American continent in lat. 10° north.

5. **JOHN CABOT**, and his son **SEBASTIAN CABOT**, Venetians, resident in England, who, in the year 1497, under the auspices of Henry VIII. discovered the island of *Newfoundland*, and some parts of the western continent, from lat. 45° to lat. 38° north.

6. **JAMES CARTIER**, who, in the service of Francis I. of France, made several voyages to America, between the years 1534, and 1542, in which he discovered *Canada*, and some of the adjacent waters, and made settlements.

7. **FERDINANDO DE SOTO**, Governor of *Cuba*. He had been a companion of the Pizarros in their Peruvian expedition. About the year 1539, he sailed from *Cuba*, with 900 men, to conquer *Florida*. He traversed the country in various directions for three years, and, at

length, died on the banks of the Mississippi.

8. Sir HUMPHREY GILBERT, who obtained from Queen Elizabeth, in 1579, a patent for discovering, occupying, and peopling, all countries not possessed by any christian prince;—who, in 1583, sailed to *Newfoundland*, took formal possession of it, and of the continent of North-America, for the crown of England;—and who, in returning home, was lost, his ship foundering at sea.

9. Sir WALTER RALEIGH, whose name makes so distinguished a figure in the history of England, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and who was the unfortunate founder of the colony of *Virginia*.

10. JOHN DE FUCA, a Greek, who was sent by the Viceroy of Mexico, in 1592, to discover a north-west passage, by exploring the western side of the American continent. He discovered a strait which bears his name, in north lat. 48° , and supposed it to be the long desired passage.

11. BARTHOLOMEW GOSNOLD, an Englishman, who, in 1682, discovered a promontary on the American coast, in north lat. 42° , to which he gave the name of *Cape-Cod*; landed on an island, which he called *Elizabeth*, where he built a small fort, and returned the next year to England.

12. JOHN SMITH, a man of extraordinary travel and adventure, who acted so distinguished a part in the settlement of *Virginia*.

13. DE MONTS, POURTRINCOURT, and CHAMPLAIN, three Frenchmen, who, in the beginning of the 17th century, were active in exploring and settling *Canada*.

14. FERDINANDO GORGES, and JOHN MASON, who were so eminently active and useful in making the colonial establishments in New-England.

15. HENRY HUDSON, an English navigator of skill and experience, who signalized himself by several voyages, but especially by that in which he discovered and explored the river which has been since called by his name.

16. Sir THOMAS SMITH, an English merchant of great wealth and influence, who was Treasurer of the Virginia Company under the first charter, and presided in all the meetings of the Council and Company, but never came to America.

17. THOMAS, LORD DELAWARE, &c. Lord Delaware was an English peer, of distinguished character, who was active, and incurred great expense in establishing the colony of Virginia, and who died in the year 1618, in his second voyage to America, in or near the mouth of the Bay, which bears his name.

18. Sir SAMUEL ARGAL, and Sir GEORGE YEARDLEY, Deputy Governors of Virginia, under Lord Delaware.

19. Sir FRANCIS WYAT, a respectable Irish gentleman, who was Governor of Virginia from 1621 to 1625.

20. BARTHOLOMEW GOSNOLD, &c. Dr. B. esteemed his account of Gosnold's voyage and discovery, in the first volume of this work, so erroneous, that he thought it best to write the whole anew. We are told that the former mistakes are here corrected; for this purpose the Dr. went himself to the spot which was the principal scene of Gosnold's achievements in this country, and made his observations in person.

21. JOHN ROBINSON, an English clergyman, who was persecuted at home, went over to Holland, and from that country removed to New-England, in 1620.

22. JOHN CARVER, an English-

man, the first Governor of New-Plymouth.

23. WILLIAM BRADFORD, who succeeded Carver in the government of New-Plymouth.

24. WILLIAM BREWSTER, an English gentleman, celebrated for his piety and talents. He was a distinguished member of the New-Plymouth colony—and for some time acted as a teacher of religion among them, without having been regularly ordained to that office.

25. ROBERT CUSHMAN. This was a distinguished character among that collection of worthies who quitted England on account of their religious difficulties—went over to Holland with John Robinson, and afterwards came to America.

26. EDWARD WINSLOW, an English gentleman, also one of Mr. Robinson's congregation, who emigrated from Leyden, and settled at New-Plymouth, where he was distinguished for his active services to the colony. He was chosen their Governor in 1636.

27. MILES STANDISH, an Englishman of distinguished family, and celebrated for his great activity, and heroic exploits, in the colony of New-Plymouth.

28. JOHN WINTHROP, the first Governor of Massachusetts.

29. JOHN WINTHROP, F.R.S. Governor of Connecticut, the eldest son of the gentleman mentioned in the preceding article.

30. GEORGE, CECILIUS, and LEONARD CALVERT, Lords Baltimore.

31. WILLIAM PENN, the immortal founder of Pennsylvania.

We are inclined to believe, that some of the names in this long list will scarcely be thought worthy of the places which they occupy.—The attentive reader will be apt to ask, why *Zeno*, and Sir *Thomas Smith*, to mention no others, are introduced in so conspicuous a manner into a work of American

Biography, when neither of them was ever in America, nor ever distinguished by any remarkable discoveries or achievements connected with this country? The reason which the author would probably have offered for this is, that he found it convenient to associate with the names of these men, information which could not be so easily communicated in any other way. But might not this information have been given quite as conveniently, and with more propriety, under some other heads in the work? Does the method which has been adopted serve any other purpose than to multiply articles?

As this work is professedly a compilation, its execution did not require, and, indeed, scarcely admitted of much display of original talent. To explore the rubbish of antiquity, and select from the huge and shapeless mass which it presents, the scraps of useful knowledge—to trudge through the writings of *Hackluyt*, *Purchas*, and the other collectors of early voyages and travels, and to extract a distinct and catenated meaning from their tedious, dark, and uncouth narrations—is an employment requiring more of patience and industry than of profound or creative thinking. Dr. B. however, has executed his task in a manner which, we think, will do credit to his memory as a writer. In some instances, indeed, we doubt whether he has made the most of his materials. Though he has exhibited the lives of *Columbus*, *Raleigh*, *John Smith*, and *Penn*, in a manner by no means uninteresting—and though the parts of his work devoted to these characters are undoubtedly among those which deserve most praise, in various respects; yet we were often tempted to believe, in perusing them, that the ample records which are to be found of those distinguished men, might have furnished matter for

more impressive and instructive sketches.

In the life of Sir *Samuel Argal*, Deputy Governor of Virginia, the following passage will at once divert the reader, and serve to show him the state of society, and the habits of thinking, in the early stage of that colony.—“It seems to have been a general sentiment among the colonists, not to make Virginia the place of their permanent residence, but after having acquired a fortune by planting and trade, to return to England. For this reason most of them were destitute of families, and had no natural attachment to the country. To remedy this material defect, Sir Edwin Sandys, the new Treasurer, proposed to the Company to send over a freight of young women to make wives for the planters. This proposal, with several others made by that eminent statesman, was received with universal applause, and the success answered their expectations. Ninety girls, ‘young and uncorrupt,’ were sent over, at one time, in 1620; and sixty more, ‘handsome and well recommended,’ at another, 1621. These were soon blessed with the object of their wishes. The price of a wife, at first, was one hundred and twenty pounds of tobacco; but as the number became scarce, the price was increased to one hundred and fifty pounds, the value of which, in money, was three shillings per pound. By a subsequent act of assembly, it was ordained, that ‘the price of a wife should have the precedence of all other debts, in recovery and payment, because, of all kinds of merchandize, this was the most desirable.”

The account which Dr. B. gives of a destructive pestilence among the Indians, in the lives of Ferdinando Gorges and Governor Carver, will not only afford a specimen of the work before us, but will, no doubt, on several accounts, be

peculiarly interesting to American readers.—“Hitherto they (the new settlers) had not seen any of the natives at this place. The mortal pestilence which raged through the country, four years before, had almost depopulated it. *Samoset*, one of the surviving Indians, however, soon appeared, and treated them with kindness and hospitality. He informed them, ‘that by the late pestilence, and a ferocious war, the number of his countrymen had been so diminished, that not more than one in twenty remained; that the spot where they were now sitting was called *Patukset*, and though formerly populous, yet every human being in it had died of the pestilence.’ This account was confirmed by the extent of the fields, the number of graves, and the remnants of skeletons lying on the ground; for so great were the ravages of this dreadful disease, that the most authentic accounts inform us, the living were not able to bury the dead. The extent of the pestilence was between Penobscot, in the east, and Narraganset, in the west. These two tribes escaped, while the intermediate people were wasted and destroyed.”—Of what particular kind this disease was, we have no particular information. Dr. B. inclines to the opinion, that it was the *Yellow Fever* of modern times. Mr. Gookin tells us, that he “had discoursed with some old Indians, who were then youths, who told him that the bodies of the sick were all over *exceeding yellow*, (which they described by pointing to a yellow garment) both before they died, and afterward.” See Collections of Historical Society for 1792, p. 148.

In the account given of *William Penn*, we are pleased to see a popular error concerning that great man corrected. The *Abbe Raynal* has said, and with him almost every body has believed, “that the

founder of Pennsylvania, in obtaining lands from the Indians by purchase instead of violence, set an example of moderation and justice, which was never thought of before by the European settlers in America." Though the purchases which Mr. Penn made of the Indians were undoubtedly, for the most part, fair and honest; and though he is entitled to much praise for his wise and peaceable conduct toward them; yet, as Dr. B. remarks, there is such a thing as over-rating true merit. It is very certain, that among the *Dutch* in New-Netherlands, the *Swedes* on Delaware, and the *English* in Massachusetts and Connecticut, the habit of purchasing lands in a fair and honourable manner of the natives, was established long before Mr. Penn visited America. In this respect, therefore, it is but justice to say, he did nothing more than follow the laudable example of preceding colonists, who had so fully experienced, that in this, as well as in every other case, *honesty is the best policy*. This instance of rectifying a general mistake is the more striking and valuable, as, if there be a fault which runs through the compositions before us, it is a tendency to indiscriminate eulogium. To think and speak well of the distinguished dead is pleasant to the benevolent mind; and to do so to an excessive degree may be oftentimes an amiable fault: but the biographer owes it to truth and his fellow men, to paint without flattery or concealment; to present virtues, wherever he finds them, in the glory of their native colouring; and the shades of imperfection and vice, which may be discovered without reserve or softening.

All classes of readers, however, will agree that, in the work before us, Dr. B. has accomplished a task richly worthy of praise. He has presented the student of American antiquities with an entertaining and

instructive collection; and he has furnished the future historians of his country with many important facts, and with a digest of documents, which must prove a valuable guide in their investigations.

Dr. B. had but just prepared the second of these volumes for the press, when his pursuits were arrested by death. The editor informs us that his collections toward a complete body of *American biography* were large; that he had made some progress in arranging them; and that they might be readily fitted for the press, if the public opinion should countenance the publication. We should be sorry to see a well-earned reputation diminished by the indiscreet partiality of surviving friends; but we have no hesitation in believing that collections which had undergone even the smallest modifying labour of such a man, would be an acceptable present to the public. We hope, therefore, that those to whom the Dr.'s papers are intrusted, will endeavour, by a speedy disclosure of such of them as may be thought useful, to alleviate, as much as possible, the loss which America has sustained by his death.

ART. XVI.

An Oration, spoken at Hartford, in Connecticut, on the Anniversary of American Independence, &c. By William Brown. Hartford. Hudson and Goodwin. 1799. pp. 23.

A PUBLICATION like the present is, in some respects, of no very permanent or momentous kind. It is an actual address to a select assembly: its topics are necessarily drawn from popular, and, therefore, limited and temporary sources: it is confined to bounds, not consistent with abstruse or complex reasoning, and must be

modelled after a looser, more superficial, and diffuse pattern, than if it were the fruit of years, were extended to a volume, and were designed to instruct posterity, and the whole of mankind, on subjects connected with the interests of the whole. It must be considered as a speech composed in a few hours, and delivered, in forty minutes, to some hundreds of auditors.

In other views, however, performances of this kind are of great importance. They afford excellent criterions of the state of opinion in the community, on national and political topics. They compose a sort of indication of the popular tide, and not only exhibit the systems of action, but the reason on which these systems are built.

Placed in this light, the oration before us is of no small value. It is a specimen not only of the political creed of the hearers, and of a numerous class among our countrymen, but of the arguments which are commonly assigned in justification of this creed.

The orator, after slightly alluding to the occasion of the festival, passes, with some abruptness, to a display of the present condition of the nation, in relation to France. This condition is neither hostile nor pacific. The conduct of the French has induced us to forbear direct intercourse, and adopt the means of repelling maritime attacks: No war has been declared, and no attacks upon their persons or property have been permitted, and the option of general and direct hostility seems still to be submitted to the French government.

Of this forbearance, the orator speaks in terms somewhat contemptuous, and strongly insinuates his disapprobation, though, at the same time, he somewhat qualifies his censure, by confessing, that, in such a case, "it becomes not him to decide." He regards any connection

by treaty, as well as any diplomatic intercourse with France, as, in the highest degree, pernicious; and as, at all events, to be avoided. His reasons for this opinion are drawn from a belief, that the French rulers are utterly void of those moral sentiments to which treaties must owe their force and their permanence; that these rulers are actuated by an implacable hatred to us, and that their most powerful engines for destroying those whom they hate, are intrigue, bribery, the diligence of secret agents, and the dissemination of immoral and anarchical tenets.

Many evils have sprung up in the course of the French revolution, which some have ascribed to necessity, to the casual licentiousness of human passions, or to the depravity produced by the preceding tyranny. The true cause, however, has, in Mr. B.'s opinion, been hitherto mistaken, and has only been unfolded in a work written by the Abbe Baruel, and lately republished in America. This work has been widely diffused, has exercised much influence on our opinions, and has been received, by many, as incontestibly authentic in its facts, and just in its conclusions.

Mr. B. guided by the representations of this writer, conceives, that a plan has been formed, of changing the face of the world, of extirpating religion in all its forms, and every moral principle, not only in Germany or France, but throughout the earth; of destroying the present domestic, political, and religious systems, not partially or locally, but completely and universally; of annihilating every tie of kindred, and every claim of property; of reducing mankind to the state of brutes, and the world to nakedness and desolation. This plan was devised by Voltaire, and a few associates: it has since been prosecuted, by means of the press, by secret associations and conspiracies; by every

hypocritical, flagitious and profound expedient, which zeal, ingenuity, and malice could invent.

This description relates not merely to the *tendency* of certain schemes, but to the *motives* of the actors. Some would reason thus: Men are liable to error, and though they may intend good, may commit enormous mistakes in the choice of means. While they imagine themselves labouring for the happiness of mankind, loosening the bonds of superstition, breaking the fetters of commerce, out-rooting the prejudice of birth, by which father transmits to son absolute power over the property, liberty, and lives of millions, they may, in reality, be merely pulling down the props which uphold human society, and annihilate not merely the chains of false religion, but the foundations of morality—not merely the fetters of commerce, and feudal usurpations upon property, but commerce and property themselves. The apology which may be made for such is, that though their activity be pernicious, their purposes are pure.

The men called by Barruel *philosophists*, are denied the benefits of this construction. All the disasters which have flowed from their precepts were consequences unavoidable, *foreseen* and *intended*. We are taught to regard them, not as endeavouring to substitute one scheme of society and political subordination for another, but to abolish every social and pacific principle among men. Not only the dissolution of order, the enthronement of anarchy, the extinction of moral laws and social affections, have been, and could not fail to be, produced by their efforts, but were ardently *loved*, and deliberately *intended* by them.

Barruel was an honest and zealous man. His opinions he, of course, considered as the standard of truth; and these opinions implied the sanctity of the civil and

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ecclesiastical systems that formerly prevailed in France. The Romish religion, and hereditary despotism, were, in the eyes of one of his order and profession, virtue and duty; and to subvert these was to establish the reign of impiety and anarchy—was to rob mankind of safety and life.

The plot which he detects aimed, indeed, at somewhat more than this. The religion of Christ, and aristocratical as well as monarchical distinctions, were to be abolished. This could not fail to appear still more detestable. He would be extremely apt to confound the *design* of subverting established modes with the *design* of inflicting the utmost miseries on the human race, and filling the world with desolation and blood. Since these consequences are, in his opinion, so palpably connected with the subversion of the ancient order, he thinks they could not have escaped the attention of those who endeavoured this subversion; and since they clearly foresaw them, it is plain that all these disasters were intended.

He does not content himself, however, with speculations upon probability. He likewise thinks that he has discovered direct proofs of this intention in the rules and proceedings of certain confraternities who called themselves "*The Illuminated*." The truth of his inferences this is not the place to admit or deny. It is sufficient to observe, that they are recapitulated and adopted in this oration. Mr. B. affirms that these schemes have been fully realized in France: that the progress of cruelty and conquest, which have disgraced the French revolution, were taught in the schools of the *philosophists*, and the executors of these projects were merely the pupils of this school.

Mr. B. has not adopted the ordinary methods of accounting for the scenes that have lately passed, and

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are now passing, on the stage of Europe. The passions of ambition, avarice and fear, which have prevailed in every part of the earth, and which have filled the world with scenes of bloody contention, of foreign and domestic war, of perfidy, oppression, and revenge, will not, in his opinion, elucidate the present drama.

After expatiating in few, but very strong terms, on the horrible nature and incontestible existence of this conspiracy, Mr. B. proceeds to call the attention of his readers to the usurpations of the French in the countries adjacent to them. As they have acted towards Holland, Switzerland, and the Italian States, he believes that they will act towards America. As their acquisition of these countries has chiefly arisen from gaining over the opinions of the people to their cause, before they assailed their frontiers, he predicts that similar expedients will be employed to overthrow the independence of America; and infers the necessity of warding off not only their open attacks, but their secret machinations, and of shutting out from our borders not only their dragoons and hussars, but their ambassadors and spies.

In exhibiting the fate of Switzerland, full credit is given to the narrative of Mallet du Pan, and much use is made of his work. The influence which this book has already had in America, where it has lately been republished, renders it of no small importance. The truth of this author's statements are admitted by Mr. B. and he makes skilful use of the lessons of circumspection, and seasonable preparations against dangers which are thence to be dreaded.

The performance closes with a

view of the dangers to which we are exposed from the establishment of the French on our southern borders; an event which the connivance or weakness of Spain will speedily produce; and we are strongly admonished to reject the soporifics which our enemies hold out to us in the form of negotiations and treaties. The orator exults in the defensive measures that have already been taken; and while he anticipates triumph and security from persisting in them, predicts nothing but humiliation and calamity from slackening our efforts and relinquishing our arms.

The validity of Mr. B.'s conclusions we shall leave to the reader's consideration. Our duty, in this case, extends no farther than to state the topics, and distribution of these topics. It will be proper, however, to add, that Mr. B. has given proofs of a laudable zeal in the cause of what he deems truth, and that his rhetoric flows in a clear and rapid stream. It would be invidious to point out petty inaccuracies, where the general merit of the composition is considerable.

ART. XVII.

A SERMON, delivered at the First Church in Boston, April 6, 1798, at the Interment of the Rev. John Clarke, D. D. who expired suddenly, April 2, 1798, in the forty-third Year of his Age. By Peter Thacher, D. D. Pastor of the Church in Brattle-street, Boston. 8vo. pp. 27. Boston. Hall. 1798.*

THIS Discourse was designed, among other objects, to do honour to the memory of a man, who, while living, sustained a sin-

* In the afternoon of the Lord's-day preceding the delivery of this discourse, Dr. Clarke was preaching to his people from Psal. xxii. 3. and, in the midst of his discourse, was seized with an apoplectic fit, which terminated in his death at three o'clock the next morning.

gularly amiable and worthy character. Seldom has a death been more sincerely and generally lamented by those who knew him, than that of Dr. CLARKE. As a gentleman, companion, and friend, he had few equals. As a scholar, he was universally allowed to possess great merit. As a divine, he was more than commonly learned and accomplished. His pulpit compositions were judicious, perspicuous, and elegant; and his pulpit address, gentle, persuasive, and engaging in a very eminent degree. Dr. Thacher, connected with the deceased, by a long and intimate friendship, and also, by some peculiar ties of ecclesiastical arrangement, was called upon to preach his funeral sermon. From these circumstances we were led to open this pamphlet with more than usual expectation.

We cannot say, however, that our expectations have been fully answered. Dr. T. has given a plain, serious, and decent discourse; but higher praise, we think, cannot justly be bestowed upon it. The text chosen for the occasion, (2 Samuel i. 26.) was hardly favourable to that kind of address, which we consider most profitable in such cases. The selection of topics arising from it is trite, and common place. The mode of illustrating and enforcing them is no way remarkable; and the character with which the discourse closes, we should never have supposed was intended to exhibit Dr. Clarke, had not the place in which we found it, forbidden us to doubt of its design. It is an old, and we believe a just remark, that every character drawn in a funeral sermon or oration, should be chiefly of the *historical* kind. This is especially proper, if it be designed for publication, and be intended to perpetuate the memory of the person to whom it refers. In the short sketches which Dr. T. has

given us of his friend's virtues and talents, we find no history; and we look in vain for that peculiar and appropriate picture of excellence, of which the subject of his eulogium furnishes so high a model.—The consideration, however, that funeral sermons must, from their very nature, be written, in most cases, in extreme haste, furnishes an apology for their defects, when such appear, which ought readily to be admitted.

By way of Appendix to the sermon, there is given an extract of a discourse, delivered by the Rev. President Willard, in Dr. Clarke's Church, on the next Sabbath after his interment. This extract, as it is valuable for the historical information which it contains concerning the deceased, we presume will be acceptable to the reader.

"So just a character of your late excellent Pastor, was drawn by the gentleman who delivered the discourse from this desk, on the day of his funeral, that little more can be expected. But as I had a particular opportunity of knowing him, from the commencement of his literary course at Cambridge, with little interruption, till the time of his death; it will not, perhaps, be thought improper, should I, on this solemn day, offer a few things upon the subject.

"Being a tutor at the University when he became a member, and the class to which he belonged being committed to my particular care, I had an early opportunity of knowing his character, and I was soon led to distinguish in him that genius and application to study, together with that amiable disposition and excellent spirit, which have ever since conspicuously shone in him. For two years and a quarter I continued with the class, and during that time his improvements in literature and science were very observable; and his conduct was so uniformly good, in every respect, that he never merited or received a censure or a frown from any one who had the care and instruction of the youth; and I found, by information, after my leaving the class and the University, that he maintained the same character through the

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whole of his collegiate course. And, perhaps, there never was a student who passed through the University and went into the world with a fairer reputation, and few with more solid and useful acquirements.

"Happy is it, when youth improve their advantages in seats of literature and science to so good advantage—Happy when they carry forth with them a character so unblemished, into whatever profession or business they enter—Peculiarly happy, if they undertake the work of the Gospel Ministry.

"For some time after Mr. CLARKE left the University, he was engaged in the instruction of youth, in which employment he was highly esteemed and beloved. But whatever his pursuits were, he did not suffer his mind to be diverted from the great object he had in view, which was to fit for the sacred desk. While he was faithful in performing the business he undertook, he devoted his leisure hours to accomplish himself for that profession which lay nearest his heart; and he pursued his theological studies with great assiduity, so that when he first entered the desk it was not with a superficial knowledge. His natural abilities and literary acquirements were such as enabled him to search the Sacred Oracles with accuracy, especially the original of the New-Testament, and to attend to every subject in Divinity with judgment. And such was the candour and fairness of his mind, that few men, perhaps, have been more free from prejudices in their researches: He, therefore, became a Scribe well instructed in the Gospel System.

"His discourses early discovered an elegant taste in composition, a correctness, propriety and pertinence in thought, and that strain of seriousness and piety, which could not but be attractive. You, my brethren, soon heard of his worth; and when you employed him as a candidate for the ministry among you, your expectations from him were not disappointed; nay, it will not be beyond the truth to say, that they were more than answered. After preaching with you a competent time, he was ordained over you as a Colleague Pastor with the venerable, learned and valuable Doctor CHAUNCEY, with whom he served as a son with a father; and between them there ever existed the most happy harmony, till the day of the Doctor's death.

"Having obtained a settlement, he did not grow remiss about future improvements, but continued the same assiduity which had been a distinguished trait in his character. To the liberal arts and sciences, for which he had a true relish, and in which he was no common proficient, he, at times, paid attention. But these he considered as nothing more than handmaids to divinity, and of but secondary consideration. Divinity was his profession, and to this he directly applied a principal part of his time. He had devoted himself to the cause of God and the Redeemer, and he would not suffer other pursuits, however pleasing to his ingenious mind, to steal him away from his proper functions, and rob him of that time which he considered himself bound in duty to employ for the instruction and edification of his flock, either in preparation for his public labours among them, or in private interviews with the various members.—I have dwelt the more largely on this part of his character, because a scholar of Doctor CLARKE's acquirements, and taste for literature and science, is under a strong temptation to spend more time in such pursuits than is consistent with properly discharging the duties of his sacred profession.

"Your Pastor employed himself much in the study of the Holy Scriptures. To these heavenly Oracles he repaired, as the sources of divine knowledge, and endeavoured to gain right apprehensions of the truths contained in them, both for his own sake and the sake of his hearers, whom he instructed in these, according to his best understanding, after making use of the most approved helps he could procure, and which he was constantly laying himself out to obtain.

"His pulpit-performances were always acceptable. With those compositions of his, which I have either heard or read, I have ever been pleased and edified. His Treatise in defence of Christianity, entitled, "Why are you a Christian?" is, perhaps, as valuable a piece as has been written within the same compass. By its conciseness it is well adapted to being dispersed; and by its perspicuity and pertinence, happily calculated to convince and confirm. It is highly esteemed, not only on this, but on the other side of the Atlantic. I have received, but a little while since, a letter from a respectable Divine in Great-Britain. In this letter

he says, "We have here been greatly pleased, instructed and impressed by a little piece, written by one of your ministers, Mr. CLARKE, entitled,—“Why are you a Christian?” And after mentioning that three editions of it had been printed in England, two of which he himself had carried through the press, he adds,—“The circulation of it cannot fail to give pleasure to the pious and worthy author, and to ensure its views of usefulness.”

“His pleasing private intercourse with you, and also with the children of the society whom he delighted to instruct, you need not be reminded of. The impressions made by these endearments will not be soon, if ever, effaced. Indeed, so sweet was his disposition, and so engaging his manners; so pleasing was he in his conversation, and so amiable in all his interviews with those he met, that a general esteem of and affection for him was almost unavoidably excited; and he was beloved by all but the determined foes of virtue and goodness.

“I pass over his domestic virtues, in which he was eminent, and which all who knew him witnessed.

“What an unspeakable loss have you sustained in the death of such a Minister and friend! But let the bereaved relatives—let the members of this religious society, consider the consolations which offer themselves in the midst of their grief. You have all abundant reason to conclude that he was a man of habitual piety, and that he lived mindful of his exit; so that although he was suddenly summoned out of time into eternity, he was prepared for the change, and that “his loins were girded about, and his light burning.” He may be said to have been watching when his Master knocked. He was even then particularly employed in his service, engaged in the very act of religious teaching, and endeavouring to prepare men for a better world.

“Such grounds of comfort have we when we reflect upon the character of our dear departed friend. We consider him as one who had been sealed with the Holy Spirit of promise; and that having been thus sealed, he is now ascended to that “Holy One who inhabiteth the praises of Israel.”



Account of American Editions of Foreign Publications.

ART. XI.

An Appeal to Impartial Posterity. By Madame Roland, &c. Translated from the French. 2 vols. 8vo. New-York. Printed by R. Wilson, for A. Van Hook. 1798.

THIS work will be deemed of considerable importance by the historian and moralist. Its connection with the great events of the French revolution, with the general theory of human nature, and with the interests of the female sex, renders it a curious and valuable monument.

The comprehensive details of history are of great use. Just conceptions of events can be gained only by ample displays and long deductions; but there are partial views which make a more forcible impression. The fate of a single individual may epitomize that of a nation, and concentrate all the feelings which a political transaction may be adapted to produce.

Madame Roland was the wife, counsellor, and sometimes the agent of a minister. She witnessed the progress of the revolution, and partook in its consequences. The political errors into which the honest actors in that great scene were betrayed, by the study of antiquity, and of the British constitution; their fallacious estimate of the virtue of the people; their temporary success, and their ultimate fall beneath the reign of terror and guilt, are displayed, in this work, in striking and affecting colours.

In saying even thus much, perhaps, we cannot expect the acquiescence of many readers. No subject is more intricate; capable of being seen in a greater number of lights, and of connecting itself with so many interests and passions, as the

French revolution. The motives and schemes of the Rolandists are regarded, by different persons, with opposite emotions. The disinterestedness, sincerity, and wisdom of this party, are all topics of controversy. All these qualities are granted them by some, and denied to them by others. Some, who admit the wisdom of their schemes, question the purity of their motives; and some, who allow them to be honest, deny their pretensions to wisdom. Among the last, a further subdivision of opinion may be noted.

Roland and his colleagues, says one, were honest men. They sincerely desired the happiness of their country, and of mankind; but they grossly erred in believing that monarchy and the christian religion were detrimental to that happiness. By subverting or weakening these we only open the door to outrage, anarchy, and bloodshed. These truths were fatally attested by their own experience.

It is true, says another, Roland and his compeers were upright and sincere. It is not less true that they erred, but their error consisted merely in their aversion to religion. They were right in conceiving monarchy in all its forms and fragments, subversive of the happiness, because destructive to the equality, of mankind; but they committed an egregious mistake in involving religion in the same sentence. As preachers of democracy, they are entitled to audience and belief; but as inculcators of atheism, they deserve to be shunned as the bane of their species.

A third set not only venerate the virtuous intentions of these men, but applaud that sagacity which discerned the connection between civil and religious tyranny, between the claims of the priesthood and the fundamental maxims of religion; and demonstrated that mankind are

degenerate and miserable in proportion as their conduct is modified by deference to the written *will* of a supposed God, and by homage to the groundless distinctions of rank and royalty.

In the opinion of these reasoners, the Rolandists did not err in imputing all the calamities of France to the corruptions of the rulers and the people, the lust of conquest and war, the venal, luxurious and servile spirit which overspread all ranks, to the joint influence of the monarchical and religious spirit. Their error consisted not in overrating the mischief that flowed from this source, but in underrating it. The disease they supposed to be less inveterate, and more curable, than the experiment proved it to be. To abolish the monarchy and priesthood would take away the ills of which they were productive, and virtue, they thought, would immediately spring from equality and freedom. They were far from thinking that the shackles by which the French people had so long been held had gradually bereaved them of reason; and, that to break these shackles at once, was merely to give scope to all the insane and ferocious passions, of whose first excesses they themselves were destined to be victims.

Madame Roland appears to have reasoned nearly in this manner. For a time she was the dupe of appearances, and imagined that despotism would speedily shake off the limitations of the first constitution. Courtiers and people were fit for nothing but servitude, and her courage and confidence were revived only by the popular insurrection which dethroned the king.

This confidence was quickly overturned, and she found that those who, ere while, were running into servitude, now took a contrary course, and rushed into anarchy. Tyrants, unsupported by fortune,

rank, or virtue, rose upon the ruins of the monarchy. Cruelty and havoc were let loose upon the good, and the nation was laid waste by judicial murders and military executions. Her own persecution and death were parts of this reverse, and were proofs, in her eyes, of the hopeless depravity of her countrymen; by whose vices their deliverance from the yoke of priests and kings was converted from a blessing to a curse.

In whatever light the French revolution may be viewed, these memoirs will afford us the highest instruction. Many momentous incidents and characters fell within her power to describe with more accuracy and force than can be expected from most others. The portraits are touched with a most powerful and masterly hand, and their value arises not more from the opportunities of observation which her situation afforded her, than from the keenness of her penetration, and the accuracy of her distinctions. She was in habits of confidential intercourse with the men of literary and political eminence; she listened to the consultations of the ministers; many acts of government were dictated by her foresight and wisdom; she was involved in a numerous proscription; she was ranked with the chiefs of the vanquished party; the terms of her accusation and defence include a striking view of the conduct and motives of men who governed, for a time, the destiny of France and of Europe. Hence the value of this performance will be little affected by difference of opinion in those readers to whom the present state of the world is a subject of curiosity.

Madame Roland designed to have written the annals of the revolution. For this task she was eminently qualified; but her fortune, by allotting her a prison and an untimely death, partly frustrated this design. Con-

demned to a prison, severed from her child and her husband, the last of whom was in momentary danger of detection and murder, harrassed by menaces and mistreatment, hourly warned of her own fate, by that of her friends, she was not deserted by a generous disdain of injustice, and the consciousness of innocence.

To secure a future vindication she betook herself to her pen. She composed narratives of public events connected with her own history, and that of her husband. The first of these relates the incidents preceding and attending her arrest. Having finished this account, she proceeds to tell the steps by which Roland was changed from a provincial officer to a minister of state, intermingling personal, domestic, and social details with those of a more public nature. These are deficient in regularity: they are bold, picturesque and rapid sketches, loosely arranged, but imparting forcible views of her own character, that of her husband and friends, and of the machinations by which Marat, Danton, and Robertspierre arrived at supreme authority.

These are followed by portraits and anecdotes; by remarks occasionally suggested by passing events; by a more regular account of the administration of Roland; by comments on the accusation of the Brissotines, and a speech intended to be read at the bar in her own behalf; by letters and papers, addressed to her friend, servants and daughters, and written on the eve of execution. These performances indicate a spirit incapable of bending to pain or suffering; fearless of death, and only swerving from its equanimity when invaded by thoughts of her husband's fate, and her daughter; by compassion for the woes and horror at the depravity of her countrymen.

We are afterwards presented with memoirs of her private life, till her

marriage with Roland; and by a series of familiar letters to the friend who is the editor of these collections.

These various pieces afford us sufficient materials for a knowledge of the author's character. The circumstances in which they were written remarkably attest the loftiness and vigour of her spirit. She frequently breaks off the thread to notice some mournful particular in her condition; and the contrast between the nature of her employment and the danger and distress that surrounded her, is highly affecting.

Her private memoirs are short, but they contain a great display of incidents and characters. They exhibit a mind easily swayed by reason or intreaty; but, even in childhood, inflexible to threats and blows; eager after knowledge, and placing its supreme delight in study; free from the usual prejudices of a rich, indolent, and pampered education; accustomed to household and personal offices; and as expert in the kitchen and market as in the library, the drawing-room, and the council of statesmen; practising the lessons of rigid independence, and drawing her chief consolation from the consciousness of rectitude.

Her heart was the seat of ardent affections. Her attachment to her youthful friends, and to her mother, testifies that enthusiasm of temper, which, chastened by reason and experience, is the parent of excellence. Her affliction, on the death of the latter, was immoderate. It was, likewise, singular, and leaves us somewhat at a loss in what manner to account for it.

Her heart was early open to the impulse of religion. She even wished to become a nun. If her wishes had been accomplished, the uniformity of a recluse life would have been curiously contrasted with her active and illustrious career. Thou-

sands, no doubt, have buried in a convent, the same talents and energies.

Religious impulses were weakened by time, and by reading. The process of her reflections, in consequence of which she became a deist, is accurately described. The authors whom she took for her guides, tended to subject her to the vacancy and dreariness of atheism. There were times when her mind was swayed by their reasonings, and she was prompted to reject the being of a God, and a future state. These moments seem to have been rare, and her disbelief was far from being permanent or habitual. While contemplating the order and magnificence of nature, while suffering injustice and oppression, or glowing with social and benevolent emotions, her heart raised itself to the author of being, and found peace in the sense of his approbation, and the hope of the re-union of her essence with his.

When the tenets and forms of the Romish religion are considered, and the prevalence of this religion in France, by which men were, in general, precluded from comparing it with other forms of christianity, a candid observer will, perhaps, make some allowance for the errors of a strong and upright mind. The education of this woman had made her regard papal claims, and the seven sacraments, as ingredients of the christian religion. In abjuring these claims and these rites, she believed herself condemning the christian faith, and imagined that no alternative was offered her, but the worship of the *host* or the disbelief of the gospels.

There are parts of this narrative in which the sex of the writer is strongly displayed. The process of nature, in maturing her physical constitution, and her conduct to her lovers, are by no means the least valuable parts of her perform-

ance. On this head some censure has accrued to her. She has been charged with infringing the laws of decorum, and needlessly expatiating on that which the customs of the world command to be kept secret.

This censure is unjust. The customs of her own country, and her mode of education, authorized her freedom in this instance. By these alone could she reasonably be governed in a case where the laws of virtue were silent. Her details are momentous and instructive, and, in no degree, detract from the rectitude and purity of her sentiments. Our own customs, and the customs of the English, are fastidious in this respect: they are far from being proofs of superior chastity. They have probably risen among us, in some sort, accidentally, and cannot be deemed arguments of a depraved temper; but, with as little reason, can they be considered as proofs of extraordinary purity.

In examining the catalogue and portraits of her lovers, we are struck with the inequality which subsisted between this woman and those of the other sex with whom she was classed. She had no sister or brother. Her parents, and relations, and visitants, were, for the most part, totally unlike herself. To meet a fit companion in the other sex, whose age, talents and propensities resembled her own, was not her destiny. One is tempted to suppose that such an one never existed, though, perhaps, a character like her's was not more singular among men than among women. The chances that two such should meet would, consequently, be diminished, and the lady's marriage with an equal might be ranked with those wonderful and fortunate events, the non-occurrence of which, as it must be generally

expected, ought to excite no regret.

Roland had less sensibility and genius than herself. His voice, air and manners, were rugged, blunt, and unprepossessing. The fire of youth had probably been very feeble in his bosom, even during his youth, and could not, therefore, be very active after near fifty years of celibacy, severe studies, and political occupations. Of all topics that engage the attention of men, in the present state of society, that of marriage is the most important. The few pages which this lady bestows upon the reasons of her choice are the most curious and instructive of the whole performance, and exhibit a mind of the highest order. We shall conclude our remarks with quoting her own relation.

"On M. Roland's return, I found myself in possession of a friend. His gravity and his studious habits concurred in making me consider him as a person of no sex, or rather as a philosopher, who had only a mental existence. A kind of confidence grew up between us; the pleasure he took in my company making him feel a desire of coming more frequently. It was near five years since my acquaintance with him began, when he first made a declaration of his tender sentiments. I did not hear it with indifference, because I esteemed him more than any man I had yet seen; but I had remarked that neither he nor his family were altogether indifferent to worldly considerations. I told him frankly that I felt myself honoured by his addresses, and that I should be happy to make him a return for his affection; but that I did not think he would find me a proper match. I then disclosed to him, without reserve, the state of my father's affairs—he was a ruined man. By prevailing on myself to ask him for an account of my fortune, at the risk of incurring his displeasure, I had saved five hundred livres* a year, making, with my little moveables, all that remained of the apparent opulence in which I had been brought up.

"My father was still in the vigour of

* Ninety-two dollars and fifty cents.

life: his errors might lead him to contract debts, which his inability to pay might render disgraceful: he might marry imprudently, and add to those evils little beggars, who would bear my name, &c. &c. I was too proud to expose myself to the malevolence of a family, which might feel its consequence hurt by the connection, or to the generosity of a husband who would find in it a source of chagrin. I advised M. Roland, as a third person might have done, to give up all thoughts of me. He persisted; I was moved; and consented to his taking the necessary steps with my father. But as he preferred making his application in writing, it was agreed that he should not send his letter till his return to his usual place of residence. During the rest of his stay at Paris I saw him every day; considered him as the being with whom my future fate was to be connected; and conceived a real affection for his person. As soon as he returned to Amiens he wrote to my father, making known his wishes and designs. My father thought the letter dry: he did not like M. Roland's severity, and felt no inclination to have for a son-in-law a man of rigid principles, whose very looks would wear the appearance of reproach. He answered in rude and impertinent terms, and shewed me the whole, when his letter was sent off. I came to a resolution immediately. I wrote to M. Roland, and told him the event had justified my fears in respect to my father; that I did not wish to be the cause of his receiving farther affronts, and that I begged him to abandon his design. I made known to my father what his conduct had induced me to do; and added, he could not be surprized if I should, in consequence, seek a new situation, and retire to a convent. But as I knew he had several debts of an urgent nature, I left him the share of plate that belonged to me, to satisfy his creditors; hired a little apartment in the convent of the congregation, and there took up my abode, with a firm resolution to regulate my expenses by my income. I did so; and curious particulars I should have to relate of a situation in which I began to avail myself of the resources of a strong mind. I calculated my expenses to a farthing, reserving a trifle for presents to the persons who did the menial offices about the house. Potatoes, rice, and dry kidney-beans, dressed in a pot, with a sprinkling of salt, and a small bit of

butter, varied my food, and were cooked with little loss of time. I went out twice a week; once to visit my aged relations; and once to my father's, in order to look over his linen, and take away with me whatever stood in need of mending. The rest of my time, shut up under my roof of snow, as I used to call it, (for I was lodged near the sky, and it was in the winter) and refusing to mix habitually with the boarders, I applied to my studies; steeled my heart against adversity; and, by deserving happiness, avenged myself on fate, which denied it me. Every evening the kind-hearted Agatha came to pass an hour with me, and accompanied the effusions of her soul with the consolatory tears of friendship. A few turns in the garden, when every body was out of the way, constituted my solitary walks. The resignation of a patient temper, the quiet of a good conscience, the elevation of spirit which sets misfortune at defiance, the laborious habits that make the hours pass so rapidly away, the delicate taste of a sound mind finding, in the consciousness of existence and its own value, pleasures which the vulgar never know: these were my riches. I was not always free from melancholy; but even melancholy had its charms. Though I was not happy, I had within me all the means of being so; and had reason to be proud of knowing how to do without what I wanted in other respects.

"M. Roland, astonished and afflicted, continued to write to me, like a man constant in his affection, but offended at my father's conduct. He came at the expiration of five or six months, and felt the flame of love revive on seeing me at the grate, where I preserved an appearance of prosperity. He was desirous of taking me out of my confinement, offered me his hand again, and pressed me to receive the nuptial benediction from his brother the prior. I entered into a deep deliberation concerning what I ought to do. I could not help being sensible, that a man under forty-five would not have waited several months without endeavouring to make me change my resolution; and I readily confess that my sentiments were reduced, by that consideration, to a state which admitted of nothing like illusion. I considered, on the other hand, that his perseverance, the fruit also of mature deliberation, proved his sense of my merit; and since he had overcome his repugnance to the disagree-

able circumstances that might attend the match, I was the more secure of retaining his esteem, which I should not find it difficult to justify. Besides, if matrimony was, as I thought, a rigorous tie, a partnership, in which the woman generally undertakes to provide for the happiness of both parties, was it not better to exert my faculties and my courage in that honourable station, than in the forlorn and ascetic life I was leading in a convent? Here I might state, at length, the many prudent reflections, as I conceive them to be, that guided me; and yet I did not make all those that the circumstances might have warranted, but which experience alone can suggest. I became then the wife of a truly honest man, who continued to love me the more, the better he new me. Married when my reason was matured, I met with nothing that could disturb its serious course; and fulfilled my duties with an ardour that was rather the effect of enthusiasm than calculation. By studying my partner's happiness, I perceived something was wanting to my own.—I have never ceased a moment to consider my husband as one of the most estimable men in existence; as a man to whom I might be proud of belonging; but I have often felt the disparity between us. I have often felt the ascendancy of an imperious temper, joined to that of twenty years more than I could count, rendered one of those advantages a great deal too much. If we lived in solitude, I had sometimes disagreeable hours to pass: if we mixed with the world, I was beloved by persons, some of whom appeared likely to take too strong a hold of my affections. I immersed myself in study with my husband—another excess by which I was a sufferer: I accustomed him not to know how to do without me at any time, or on any occasion whatever."

ART. XII.

Essays, Political, Economical, and Philosophical. By Benjamin Count Rumford. *The first American, from the third London Edition.*

(Continued from page 232.)

THE subjects hitherto discussed by this writer relate, generally, to the best mode of supplying the ne-

cessities of the poor. They are topics, therefore, in a considerable degree, political. The field of inquiry in the third essay is interesting, in different degrees, but in a direct manner to every individual.

It is known that the best book on the art of cookery extant, is the work of a philosopher. There is novelty, as well as ludicrousness, in the notion of serious and benevolent discussion, bestowed on this subject; and yet, if the composition and preparation of food be capable of being rendered less expensive, less complicated, less tedious, and, at the same time, more palatable and more nutritious, than they are at present, few topics are more worthy of serious discussion.

Improvements in this art have much to contend with in the inveteracy of popular habits. In an affair of so constant and frequent recurrence as eating, custom is an arbitrary despot; and yet, a scheme, accompanied with great and incontestible advantages, may be expected to gain footing, however gradually, first in the opinions, and next in the practice of mankind. A review of the speculations of this author will shew their true value.

In cookery the principal *medium* or vehicle is water. Some arguments are used to shew that water prepares food, not by taking away, or *merely* taking away properties before possessed, but by adding properties of its own. Water being lately proved to be a compound substance, essentially contributing to the growth of plants, it is probable that animals are likewise sustained in the same way.

Experiment has proved the nutritiousness of food to depend, not wholly on the nature or quantity of the simple ingredients, but chiefly on the mode of mixing and cooking. Few problems are more curious than that which relates to the

quantity of nutriment which water, and the management of water, may contribute. That compound which possesses most advantages, excludes the flesh of animals, and comprises pearl-barley, pease, potatoes, bread-cuttings, vinegar, salt, and water, in certain proportions. First let the barley be put into water and boiled; then add the pease; and, after two hours gentle boiling, the potatoes, *peeled*. The boiling having continued one hour more, and the mass frequently stirred, add vinegar and salt, and, just before serving it up, the bread-cuttings.

Food pleases the palate more, and is more easily digested, as the mastication is longer and more complete. Bread is useful to this end; but more so in proportion to the small degree in which it is softened or dissolved by the fluid, or in proportion to its hardness, which may be increased by keeping it till stale, by toasting; and, lastly, by frying it in oil, lard, or butter. Of this soup twenty ounces, or a pint and one-fourth, suffices as a meal for a strong man. In this are included less than six ounces of solid *vegetable* food. Healthful substance requires not more than two portions daily.

These facts are copiously detailed and illustrated. It seems sufficient to observe, that experience demonstrates their truth. The tendency of cooking to enhance nourishment, has been displayed in the treatment of cattle; kitchens being built, in many parts of Germany, for the use of beasts as well as of men. The benefit of this food, in order to be realized, seems to require that great numbers should be supplied by one process, and from one kettle. As the means of supplying one person, or one family, it is liable to objections, from which, as the means of supplying hundreds or thousands, it is exempt. This circumstance is chiefly of weight as it regards fuel

and labour. A family of ten persons may be supplied by seven articles, including water; the solid vegetable food, consisting of four articles, weighing seven pounds eight ounces, and the whole amounting to twelve quarts and a pint.

The scale on which this experiment was tried by Count Rumford was large. Food was, in this manner, supplied to twelve hundred persons. Potatoes were at first omitted. The hands of three cook-maids and two men-servants were sufficient. The whole cost, including the price of the ingredients, wages, fuel, repairs of kitchen, and furniture, amounted, daily, to £ 1 15s. 2½d. sterling, or one third of a penny to each person. The subsequent addition of potatoes reduced the cost to £ 1 7s. 6½d. or one farthing to each person. The price of articles is variable; but the proportions being fixed, the computation is, in all cases, easy. These proportions, in a single mess, are almost too small for calculation. In this view, indeed, they are of little moment, since a single mess could not, and need not, be prepared. The proportions in soup prepared for ten persons may be set down thus: a *fractional* exactness is superfluous.

	lb.	oz.
Pearl barley . . .	10	
Peas	9	
Potatoes	1	15
Bread	10	
<hr/>		
Total solids	3	12
Salt		3
Weak vinegar . .		7½
Water	8	2
<hr/>		
Total	12	8½

This writer computes the expense of the same provision to twelve hundred persons in London, November, 1795, a period of scarcity, to be £ 3 9s. 9½d. or nearly thirteen dollars and a third; which is less

than a cent and an half to each person. A public kitchen, established on these principles, might supply a man with dinners, at the annual expense of four dollars and ten cents.

This soup, though palatable as well as nutritive, is susceptible of various improvements. The addition of flesh is an obvious improvement. Salted or smoked meat is best adapted to this purpose. It should be boiled in the soup, cut up, and mixed with the bread. It may likewise be used in the form of dumplings, composed of meat, *minced*, and flour or bread. So small a proportion as one ounce of meat to eighteen ounces of soup, will impart a considerable relish. Salted or smoked fish is another valuable ingredient. The common garden vegetables may be added at pleasure.

In the preparation of this food the management of fuel is matter of particular importance. The boiling should be as gentle as possible; and it would be still better if the water were kept no more than boiling hot. The heat of water cannot be raised beyond the boiling point: To create bubbles is merely to generate steam and consume fuel.

The inconvenience of what is termed by the cooks *burning to*, may be avoided by the use of vessels with double bottoms. The two plates of metal should be brought, by hammering, as nearly into contact as possible; but no soldering should be used, unless it be to join the edges. Great advantages would accrue from the use of double bottoms in all kinds of cooking vessels.

The writer introduces a curious account of military house-keeping in Bavaria. It is a model not unworthy of the attention of the wise. If imitation be practicable, what should hinder us from practising it? To simplify our servile toils, and

limit our expenses, is the dictate of the highest wisdom.

According to the first representation, each soldier, in a mess of twelve, consumed, during the day, two pounds and three ounces of solid food, consisting of bread (1 lb. 13½ oz.) beef (3¼ oz.) herbs, salt, and pepper. A knowledge of prevailing prices may show us the expense, accruing to ourselves, from the adoption of this mode of living. In Bavaria, two pence sterling was the amount of a soldier's daily expenses for food; so that his annual expense did not exceed thirteen dollars and an half.

Those whose utmost labour can only procure them necessaries, had need to economize their pittance, and to live upon as little as possible. The rich, if they pay regard to their duty to themselves, which prescribes to them temperance, and their duty to others, which exacts from them the employment of their funds to supply the needs of others, when their own necessities are supplied, will be equally sedulous in searching out means for cheapening and *nutrifying* food.

The poor, at Munich, consumed but one meal a day, and lived at a much less expense than the soldiery. The annual amount was no more than three dollars and forty cents. They received their food gratis, the institution being a charitable one. Let us imagine to ourselves a similar establishment, for the purpose of gain. The food was delicious and wholesome; and no doubt its superior cheapness would have attracted no less a number of customers. Suppose the director should levy on his customers a profit of three or four hundred per cent. the charge to each man would be four cents for his dinner, and the daily amount of clear profit on twelve hundred customers would be more than forty dollars, which are 14,600 dollars per annum. This profit may be

considered as a tax upon the customer. Let us suppose this institution to be general and national, in a country like England for example. According to this writer's computation a London dinner, in this style, could be furnished for two farthings, and, in other parts of the kingdom, at a smaller rate. If the price were fixed at three pence two farthings, and one in ten of the inhabitants were a customer, it would produce an annual revenue of £ 190,000.

That schemes for supplying the public funds should be blended with those whose end is to annihilate poverty and all its miserable and criminal progeny, may seem absurd; yet, if national, like private income, may flow from the rise of stock; and if nations, like individuals, may be contented with less than the highest possible profit on their commodities, the scheme will no longer be deemed absurd.

Among all kinds of vegetable food, Count Rumford assigns the preference to Indian corn. The extensive use of it in Italy, under the name of Pollenta, and in North-America, evinces its nutritiousness and wholesomeness. In the countries cultivated by negro slaves, it is generally preferred by them to rice, which they account the more fugitive and less substantial food. In addition to this, it is known to be producible in larger quantities than other grain; hence the propriety of encouraging the cultivation and extending the use of it.

This grain is unequal in weight in different climates. The best kind is at least as weighty as wheat, and will, probably, furnish an equal quantity of flour. On experiment, a bushel of Indian corn was found to weigh sixty-one pounds.

The modes of preparing it are various. It will constitute wholesome and palatable bread. Kneaded into dough, and baked or toasted in

the form of cakes, it is eaten in many parts of the United States; but it is more generally acceptable when mixed in equal parts with wheaten flour, regularly fermented, and baked into loaves. In this process it is proper that the Indian meal should undergo a boiling for some hours, previous to its mixture with the wheat.

But the best form in which it can be used, is said, by this writer, to be in that of hasty-pudding. This is known to be produced merely by gradually mixing the meal with boiling water. Its excellence is greatly enhanced by prolonging the boiling. This may be eaten at any time within twelve or twenty hours after it is made. We may content ourselves with the first preparation, or when it is hardened by cold, we may reduce it to slices, and toast it or fry it either simply or with butter, or lard, or meat. Its savours may be thus increased; but these additions are not required either by the stomach or palate.

When newly made and hot, its charms may be increased to some palates by accompanying it with milk, or cheese, or butter. Sugar or molasses, in very small proportions, may be advantageously added. In this form it is susceptible of mixture with rye or wheaten flour. Rye or wheat may be prepared alone in the same way.

The utility of this preparation must depend, partly upon its wholesomeness, but indispensably upon its cheapness. To ascertain this, half a pound of meal was converted, by addition of two pints of water and $\frac{1}{120}$ of a pound of salt, into a pudding weighing 1 lb. 11½ oz. It hence appears, that one pound of meal will make 3 lb. 9 oz. of pudding. The following computation is built upon our own, and the highest prices of Indian meal and salt.

Dolls. cts. mills.

Half a pound of Indian meal, at 90 cents the bushel (a bushel containing 45 pounds of meal) is 0 1 0
58 grains, or $\frac{1}{125}$ of a pound of salt (a bushel weighs 56 lbs. & may cost 112 cts.) at 2 cts. per lb, is . . . 0 0 $\frac{1}{8}$

Total 0 1 $\frac{1}{8}$

An half pound of meal has been already proved to make 1 lb. 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of pudding; so that, according to this estimate, one pound of hasty-pudding will cost $\frac{4}{7}$, or somewhat more than an half-cent.

Count Rumford breakfasted at nine o'clock A. M. on a little coffee, cream, and toasted bread. At five o'clock P. M. he dined on hasty-pudding, and fasted till nine o'clock next morning, without any decay of his strength, or extraordinary excess of appetite. He dined upon 1 lb. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of the pudding, so as to leave 10 oz. or nearly $\frac{2}{3}$ of a pound remaining. We will suppose that this remnant is consumed at a third meal. The food of a day, therefore, exclusive of breakfast, will be found to cost 1 $\frac{1}{8}$ cent. If this remnant be supposed (and it may with the utmost propriety) to constitute the breakfast, instead of coffee and bread, such would be the cost of the ingredients of our daily and wholesome food.

Let us, for a moment, picture to ourselves the condition of a man who should reduce these principles to practice. He would purchase a pipkin, constructed so as to concentrate heat and economise fuel, a plate, and a spoon. He would spend one hour in preparing his daily food, and the task would be neither toilsome nor uncleanly; and his annual expenses, on this head, would amount to *three dollars and two-thirds*.

Perhaps the present state of human knowledge does not furnish a more healthful, and, to a correct palate, a more delicious species of subsistence. The smallness of the expense may excite our wonder; but the foregoing estimate appears to be an infallible deduction from facts which cannot be denied. Fuel, properly chosen, and properly economised, will not cost more than 1 $\frac{1}{3}$ dollar per year.

Let us suppose ten persons to adopt this mode. One hour's labour of one of these will suffice for the supply of the whole number, and fifty dollars per annum will be the utmost expense of that branch of their subsistence. This is an hint equally profitable to the man of wisdom and the avaricious man.

It is difficult, however, to correct a depraved taste, or to confine ourselves within the genuine limits of temperance. Some addition to this simple food may be deemed necessary by some exorbitant epicures. For the gratification of such, Count Rumford has described a sauce, used by him, on one occasion, and composed of the most luxurious articles, namely, butter and molasses. With the addition of these articles (for vinegar perhaps had better be omitted) the cost of this banquet may be thus stated.

Dolls. cts. mills.

1 lb. 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of hasty-pudding, at $\frac{4}{7}$ of a cent per pound . . . 0 0 7

Half an oz. of butter, at 32 cents per pound 0 1 0
Three quarters of an ounce of molasses, at 100 cents per gallon 0 0 5 $\frac{4}{7}$

Total for sauce 0 1 5 $\frac{4}{7}$

Total for dinner 0 2 2 $\frac{4}{7}$

Hence it appears that the sauce is more costly than the pudding, and

must be acknowledged to be a superfluity.

Hasty-pudding is the simplest and cheapest preparation. There is one other form of preparing Indian meal, which is more in use among the opulent. As, however, its expense bears a very slender proportion to that of other delicacies, it may be worth describing. This is an Indian pudding, and is composed of molasses, salt, and Indian meal, in the following proportions:

	Dolls. cts. mills.		
3 lb. of Indian meal, at			
2 cents per pound .	0	6	0
$\frac{3}{4}$ lb. molasses, at 10			
cents per pound . .	0	7	5
1 oz. salt, at 2 cents per			
pound	0	0	$2\frac{1}{4}$
Total	0	13	$6\frac{1}{4}$

These ingredients, added to five pints of boiling water, inclosed in a bag, and boiled six hours, constitute an Indian pudding, that will weigh $10\frac{1}{8}$ lbs.

It is needless to add to the description of the composition and preparation of this pudding, any further details respecting the mode of carving it when placed upon the table, or of carrying the portions to the mouth. Those whose precipitation shall endanger their lips and gums must be taught caution by their sufferings; and those who mingle their mouths with undue proportions of butter or other adventitious sauce, must bear the penalty of their stupidity. Such details, though copiously exhibited by this author, if not trifling, are, at least, unimportant; and though susceptible of some apology when addressed to novices in the art of pudding-eating, would be out of place in an audience of adepts. We in America are sufficiently versed in these mysteries, and want only to be incited by judicious reasonings and remonstrances

to the use of these cheap and delicious viands.

Molasses imparts to these puddings a taste which, though grateful to the palate, is not, so to speak, its own; but its principal use is as a substitute for eggs, to impart *lightness*. The Count likewise insists upon the attention to be paid to the length of time during which it is boiled, and upon the cubical capacity of the pudding-bag. He sagely observes, that, of the two extremes, too hard is better than too soft; it being matter of *great importance indeed*, that the pudding should be disengaged from its tegument, without *falling to pieces*. Great stress is also laid upon the form, and the preference is justly given to a truncated cone, provided it be inverted.

Suet is no unsavoury addition to this compound. Apples are another advantageous ingredient. Other fruits, fresh or preserved, are serviceable to the same end. Indeed, an Indian pudding is a substratum on which a thousand savoury structures may be erected. The instructions of this arch-caterer are of value; but perhaps it would be the more dignified, as well as safest course, to leave the manual dexterities and chymical refinements of the sause-pan and pudding-bag, to the *trade*.

The remaining part of this essay is of less importance than the foregoing. We have already dwelt so copiously on this essay, that little will be said on that which still remains to be noticed. We shall overlook his commentaries upon *cut paste* or maccaroni. The ingredients are not cheap, nor the process easy; and it is not prepared by professed cooks, in this country.

Potatoes seem to be of chief value, but little new information is communicated to American house-

wives in this performance. The point, chiefly dwelt upon, is the boiling of potatoes, and bringing them to table with the skins on: when boiled, it is recommended to evaporate the moisture by replacing the vessel, in which they were boiled, over the fire. Receipts are likewise given for preparing potatoes in puddings and dumplings.

The preference is given to barley over wheat, as to its nutritiousness; but it is chiefly recommended as the basis of soups. Barley-meal may be used for this purpose with as much benefit as pearl-barley. One ounce and a quarter of barley-flour, to one pint and a quarter of water, will produce twenty ounces of soup; and this is a sufficient portion for one man.

Samp, or the grain of Indian corn, boiled and peeled, is celebrated as savoury and nutritive. The preparation is, however, tedious and complex. Soaking, for twelve hours, in a lixivium of water and wood-ashes, and, subsequently, boiling it four times as long, are necessary parts of this process. If grinding were an household process, it might be doubted whether samp would not be preferable, in simplicity and cheapness, to hasty-pudding, but the invention of mills has greatly simplified and expedited the pulverization of this grain. Some person, perhaps, may discover more compendious and comprehensive modes of making samp than are at present in use.

Brown soup is a Bavarian dish. It consists of butter and a little meal, fried, and afterwards dissolved in boiling water: It has little power of nourishment, but it is infinitely to be preferred to tea,

which is the darling of almost all classes. Tea is a pernicious portion, corrigible only by a plentiful addition of milk, and sugar, and solid eatables.

Rye-bread seems to be in bad repute in Great-Britain. This prejudice is thought by Count Rumford to be chiefly owing to imperfect preparation. Among the lower classes, in Europe, it is the chief species of bread. This circumstance attests its wholesomeness, and the author refers us to tables and receipts, yet to be published, for information on its comparative advantages in cookery.

The great purpose of these essays is to alleviate the miseries of the lower classes of the people. It is impossible to say how much this publication may promote this end. His exertions, as the minister of a despotic prince, produced a considerable effect; but it is likely that the deluge of war has swept all traces of his institutions from the face of the earth: By delineating these establishments, and exemplifying the truth of his deductions by their success, he has done all that his situation permits.

Poverty is a disease that can be cured only by investigating and out-rooting the causes by which it is generated. If these causes be the defects of the political constitution, every remedy is ineffectual that stops short of these. Perhaps the philanthropist will derive more sorrow from contemplating the transitoriness of the author's improvements in Bavaria, than from surveying their short-lived success, and despair of conferring any benefit on nations who know no liberty among themselves, and no equity in their conduct towards each other.

S E L E C T I O N S.

*An Account of Mr. PARK's Journey
into the Interior Parts of Africa.*

[Concluded from p. 235.]

ON the third day of August Mr. Park left Silla, intending to return through Sego, in his way back to Gambia; and at Modibao he had the good fortune to recover his horse, which he found somewhat improved in condition. Here he learnt that Mansong, having been persuaded by the Moors that our traveller had come into his country with some mischievous intention, had given orders to apprehend him. He therefore thought it prudent to avoid Sego altogether; which he accordingly did, by taking a circuitous route until he had got considerably to the west; when turning towards the Niger, he passed through many towns and villages on its banks; the largest of which, called Sammee, he left on the 14th of August, and lodged that night at Benni. On the morning of the 16th he arrived at Jabbee, a large town with a Moorish mosque in it. The same day he passed through Yamina, and on the 20th reached Koolikorro, a great salt-market. On the following day he proceeded to Marraboo, and in two days more arrived at Bammakoo, the frontier of the kingdom of Bambara.

During the course of this peregrination through the king of Bambara's dominions, our traveller had to encounter the tropical rains in all their violence; and he was principally indebted, for his daily support, to the dooty, or chief man, in the several towns through which he passed. This officer seems to possess, in some respects, the authority of mayor in the corporate towns of England; and it reflects

great honour on the police of the African kingdoms, or on the benevolent manners of the natives, that it is considered one part of the dooty's obligation to provide food for the necessitous traveller:—*To suffer the king's stranger to depart hungry*, (such is the phrase used) is an offence of a very heinous nature.—On many occasions Mr. Park offered payment for what he received, out of the kowries that still remained of the king's present, and his offer was sometimes accepted, and sometimes refused. On others he remunerated his host in a singular manner, the particulars of which deserve to be recited. Among the various impostures practised by the Moors towards the poor negroes, they frequently sell them scraps of paper, with an Arabic inscription, (commonly a passage from the Koran) which are called *saphies*, or charms. With one of these about his person, the possessor considers himself invulnerable, and neither the lurking serpent nor the prowling leopard is any longer the object of his dread. In the circumstances to which Mr. Park was reduced, he had the good fortune to discover that the negro natives ascribed to him the power of granting *saphies* of even more than Arabian virtue. "If a Moor's *saphie* is good," said the dooty of Sansanding, "a white man's must be better;" and Mr. Park, at his request, gave him one possessed of all the virtues he could concentrate, for it contained the Lord's prayer. The pen with which it was written was made of a reed; a little charcoal and gum-water made very tolerable ink, and a thin board answered the purpose of paper. In his journey westward, this merchandize turned to extraordinary good account; and it is surely

needless for Mr. Park to frame any apology for having availed himself of such a resource in his situation.

At Bammakoo the Niger ceases to be navigable. It takes its rise at a small village called Sankari, in the highlands of Jallonkondoo, about six days journey S. W. from Bammakoo; and the country becoming mountainous, our traveller, on the 22d, took the path for Sibidooloo, where he arrived at the end of two days. On the 30th he came to Wonda, a fine village, regularly built, and surrounded by a wall. Here he was confined several days by sickness; and having nothing else to offer to the friendly negro in whose house he was accommodated, Mr. Park presented him, at parting, with his horse, now, indeed, become unable to proceed any farther. On the 8th of September he set out on foot for Kinneyeto, a considerable town, which he reached on the 12th, and in three days more arrived at Kamalia. At this place, Mr. Park, worn down by fatigue and the vicissitudes of the weather, having sometimes been plunged up to the neck in rivers and swamps, and sometimes lost in woods and deserts, without shelter, clothing, or food, fell into a severe and dangerous fit of sickness, in which the remembrance of past suffering, and the hopes of future enjoyment, had nearly been extinguished together. On his arrival at Kamalia he had still a space of five hundred miles to traverse before he could reach any friendly country on the Gambia; and being informed that great part of the way lay through a desert, which it was impossible he could cross singly and unsupported, he had no other resource but to wait for the first caravan of slaves that might travel the same track. Such an one was expected to pass through Kamalia at the end of three months, and the chief director of

it resided in that place. To him, therefore, Mr. Park applied; and for the value of one slave, to be paid on his safe arrival at the Gambia, this worthy negro, whose name was Karfa Taura, not only undertook to conduct him safe to Pisanian, but offered him likewise the accommodation of his house until the time of the caravan's departure. Under this man's roof our traveller was confined to a mat, which was his only bed, by a severe and dangerous fever, for upwards of a month. Five months longer he was detained for the caravan. During this long interval not a murmur escaped the lips of Karfa, or of any of his wives, at the trouble and expense which their inmate brought upon them. To the kind attentions, the tender solicitude, the cheerful assiduity, and warm hospitality of these poor Pagans, Mr. Park declares he is indebted not only for his safe return to Great-Britain, but also for the preservation of his life; and he admits that he made his friend Karfa but an inadequate return, though the best in his power, by presenting him, on their arrival at Gambia, with double the sum that he had originally promised.

The whole of Mr. Park's route, both in going and returning, having been confined to a tract of country bounded nearly by the 12th and 15th parallels of latitude, it must be imagined that he found the climate, in all places, exceedingly hot. On the borders of the desert, where the fierceness of the tropical sun is reflected from the sands, the heat was scarcely supportable. Having been robbed of his thermometer, he had no means of forming a comparative judgment; but he well remembers, that in the dry season, when the wind blows from the east and north-east, across the desert, the ground became so hot, in the middle of the day, as not to be

borne by the naked foot. In the camp at Benowm, even the negro slaves, accustomed as they were to this temperature, could not walk from one tent to another without their sandals. At this time of the day the Moors lie stretched at length in their tents, either asleep or unwilling to move; and Mr. Park declares, that, as he lay listlessly along, after their manner, in his hut of reeds, he could not hold his hand against the current of air which came through the crevices, without suffering very sensible pain from its scorching effect. In the southern districts, which abound with wood and water, the climate improves; and, in the mornings and evenings, the air is serene, temperate and pleasant. During the rainy season the prevailing wind is from the south-west. The monsoon commonly changes about the latter end of June, and the wind continues to blow from the south-west quarter until the middle or end of October. In this interval the country is flooded, and the rains are preceded and followed by dreadful tornadoes or typhons. The commencement of this monsoon is the spring, or seed-time, and its termination is commonly the season of harvest.

Among the principal productions of the negro territories is the *lotus*. It is rather a thorny shrub than a tree, and abounds in all the countries which Mr. Park traversed; but it thrives best in a sandy soil. Its fruit is a small yellow farinaceous berry, about the size of an olive, which being pounded in a wooden vessel, and afterwards dried in the sun, is made into excellent cakes, resembling, in colour and flavour, the sweetest gingerbread. Some of the natives prepare from it also a liquor deliciously sweet.

Of one species of their corn the negroes make excellent beer, by

malting the seeds nearly in the same manner as barley is malted in England; and the beer which is thus made was, to Mr. Park's taste, equal to the best strong beer he had ever drank in his native country.

In the latter end of April, 1797, the *coffe*, or caravan, being at length completed, and our traveller's health re-established, he set out from Kamalia, in company with seventy persons, of whom only thirty-seven were slaves for sale. In nine days they came to Maana, bordering on a branch of the Senegal. In ten days more they reached the small but fertile state of Dentilla, and crossed, in their journey, some of the streams that contribute to the great river of Gambia. On the 4th of June they fell in with that river, about two days journey above the falls of Baraconda, to which place it is navigable for canoes from its mouth; and in six days more, on the 10th of June, Mr. Park, to his infinite satisfaction, having undergone in his journey, from the heat of the weather, from fatigue, and from hunger, more than he could find words to describe, entered the hospitable mansion of Dr. Laidley, from which he had set out eighteen months before.

On the 15th of the same month he embarked in a slave ship, bound to America; which being driven, by stress of weather, to Antigua, Mr. Park took his passage from thence in a vessel bound to Great-Britain; and on the 25th of Decem- last arrived safely in London.

*General Description of PERU. Translated from a Peruvian Journal published at Lima.**

THE principal object of our periodical paper is to convey a better knowledge of the country

* See No. 2, page 140, of this Magazine.

we inhabit,—a country respecting which foreign writers have published so many fictions and absurdities. Among the Spanish authors who have treated of Peru, the earlier ones either compiled the relations of their own adventures, or introduced into their histories and annals what tradition had handed down to them. Of this class are Garcilaso, Herrera, Zarate, Gil Gonzales, &c. as are also all those by whom they have been followed, if we except his excellency Don Ulloa; who, in the history of his voyage to South America, has treated of the customs, manners, and diversions of the inhabitants. This illustrious author is the first among the Spanish writers, who, in describing these countries, has soared to the contemplation of man in his moral and physical relations.

From such loose materials as the above, and from the slight informations which a few travellers have picked up in a cursory way, almost all the histories, reflections, charts, geographical tracts, and compendiums, which have been published respecting Peru on the banks of the Seine and of the Thames, have been compiled. The spirit of system, national prejudices, ignorance, and caprice, have by turns so much influenced the greater part of these productions, that the Peru which they describe to us, appears to be a country altogether different from the one with which we are practically acquainted. *

The consequence which we deduce from this exposition is, that we may, without presumption, set out by giving a general sketch of Peru, without fearing to incur the imputation of plagiarism; and with

the certainty of furnishing more precise, and, at the same time, more novel information, than any that has been hitherto given.

This great empire, the foundation of which by the Incas remains enveloped in the obscurity of a series of fables, and of an uncertain tradition, has lost much of its local grandeur since the time when it was stripped, on the north side, of the provinces which form the kingdom of Quito,* and afterwards of those which, towards the east, constitute the vice-royalty of Buenos-Ayres.† Its present extent‡ in length runs, north and south, for the space of from 420 to 450 leagues, and from 2 degrees to nearly 23 degrees of south latitude; and its greatest breadth is from 100 to 120 leagues, east and west, and from 297 to 310 degrees of west longitude, the first meridian being taken at the Peak of Teneriffe. The river of Guayaquil divides it from the new kingdom of Granada on the north side. The depopulated territory of Atacama separates it from the kingdom of Chile towards the south. Another horrible desert, of more than five hundred leagues extent, separates it towards the east, from the provinces of Paraguay and Buenos-Ayres. And, lastly, the Pacific Sea washes its western shores.

A chain of barren and rugged mountains; several sandy plains, which in a manner reach from one extremity of the coast to the other; and several lakes of many leagues in extent, some of which are situated on the summits of the above chain of mountains, occupy a great part of the Peruvian territory.—Throughout, the breaks, and the

* In 1718.

† In 1778.

‡ The geographical map of Santa Cruz, and the hydrographical chart of Don Ulloa, inserted in the third volume of his voyage to South-America, have been useful to us in fixing the longitudes and latitudes, respecting which Busching, Lacroix, and various other geographers, differ most essentially.

valleys, which enjoy the benefit of irrigation, present to the view an extensive range of delightful plains, replete with cities and towns, and the climate of which is highly salubrious. That of the elevated spots of la Sierra is extremely cold. In the Pampas le Bombon,* Fahrenheit's thermometer is constantly at from 34 to 40 degrees above zero.†

The population of Peru, so far as the original races are considered, is composed of Spaniards, Indians, and Negroes. The secondary species best known, and proceeding from a mixture of these three, are the Mulatœ, the offspring of the Spaniard and Negro women; the Quarteron, of the Mulatœ women and Spaniard; and the Mestize, of the Spaniard and Indian women. The final subdivisions which are formed by the successive mixtures, are as many as the different possible combinations of these primitive races.

The rural operations of sowing and planting, as well as domestic employments, have constantly fallen to the lot of the Negroes. It is true, indeed, that within these four years past several white people have engaged in these different tasks. Prior to this, any one, neither a negro nor a mulatœ, who should have hired himself as a valet or a labourer, would have been in a manner reputed infamous; to such a length was prejudice, or it may, perhaps, be said, pride, carried on this head. Enlightened politicians are not wanting who think it would be very unfortunate

for the kingdom, and more especially for this capital (Lima), if this prejudice were to be entirely done away.

The commerce of Peru has been considerably augmented, since it has, by the arrival of the merchant vessels of Spain by Cape Horn, and by the grant of an unrestrained commerce, freed itself from the oppression under which it groaned in the time of the Galeons, and of the fairs of Porto-Bello and Panama. Prior to that epoch, the bulky and overgrown capitals circulated thro', and were, in a manner, lost in a few hands; and while the little trader tyrannized over the people, by regulating, at his own will, the prices of the various productions and commodities, he himself received the law from the monopolizing wholesale dealer. The negotiations of this capital with the interior were then, in a great measure, dependent on the intelligence and the decisions of the magistrates; and the commerce with Spain owed its best security to the circulation of the silver entered in the bills of lading. Commerce, on the other hand, being, at this time, subdivided into so many smaller branches, maintains a greater number of merchants; at the same time that the fortunes which accrue from it are not so numerous. It is necessary that a commercial man should combine his plans skilfully, and extend his speculations, to be enable to acquire a handsome property.

The manufactures of this country consist almost entirely of a few frie-

* These are plains of fifteen leagues in length, and five or six in breadth, which form a part of the sub-delegation of Tarma, and of the intendency of the same name. They are distant from Lima, in an eastern direction, forty leagues. The lake of Chinja-y-cocha intersects them in their length; and they constitute the most lofty and most level part of la Sierra.

† This equality of temperature must appear very extraordinary to the inhabitants of Europe: a variation of six degrees only throughout the year, by night and by day! In Great-Britain there is often a greater variation in the space of half an hour; and the extreme variations throughout the year may, without the intervention of extraordinary heat or cold, be estimated at sixty degrees at least.—TRANSLATOR.

zes, the use of which is in a manner confined to the Indians and negroes. There are besides an inconsiderable number of manufacturers of hats, cotton-cloths, drinking glasses, &c. which do not, however, occupy much space in the scale of the riches of Peru. Sugar, Vicuna-wood, cotton, Peruvian bark, copper, and cocoa, (it is to be observed, however, that the two latter articles, as well as a considerable part of the Peruvian bark, are sent hither from Guayaquil, &c.) are the only commodities, the produce of our mines excepted, which we export.

The mines are the principal, it may indeed be said the only source of the riches of Peru. Notwithstanding the little industry which is employed in working them, and the small help which commerce affords to the miners, 534,000 marks of silver, and 6,038 of gold, were smelted and refined last year (1790) in the royal mint of Lima; and 5,162,239 piasters,* in both materials, were coined there.†

From the mines of Gualgayoc,‡ and from that of Pasco,§ about one half of the silver which is annually smelted, coined, and wrought, is extracted. The mine of Guantajaya|| is abundant in ores and rich metallic veins, but does not yield in proportion, in consequence of the dearness of every necessary, as

well for working, as for convenience and subsistence. On account also of its distance from the capital, the benefits which would otherwise arise from it are lost: the ores of thirty marks the caxon,¶ do not pay themselves; and the same may be said of the products of the smaller and more superficial veins, which occasionally present themselves, and in which the silver is chiseled out. It is greatly to be hoped that the plan of transporting the produce of this mine to Callao may be adopted: this would not only cause the mine itself to flourish, but would be beneficial to all the adjacent provinces.

That of Guarochiri,** the effects of the abundance of which are more immediately felt in this capital, does not flourish in a degree which should apparently correspond with the richness of its metals, and the abundance of its metallic spots and veins. The adoption of the newly introduced method of amalgamation; the employment of a sufficient number of Indian labourers, who may be engaged without difficulty; and a few reforms in the practical part of the laborious operations; these are the only principles on which this mine, as well as all the others in the kingdom, can be brought into a truly flourishing condition.

The navigation of Peru is limit-

* Dollars.

† In the former year, 1789, 3,570,000 piasters in silver, and 760,768 in gold, were coined.

‡ This mine is in the intendency of Truxillo, 178 leagues distant from Lima, and from Truxillo 68.

§ Otherwise called Cerro Mineral de Lauricocha. It is situated at the northern extremity of the Pampas de Pombon; and is distant from Lima 45 leagues, and from Tarma 22.

|| This mine, which, in opposition to the laws nature generally observes, is situated in a very hot and sandy soil, is comprehended in the province of Tarapacá, in the intendency of Arequipa. It is distant from that intendency 80 leagues, from Lima 300, and from the port of Iquique nearly two leagues.

¶ The caxon contains 6250 pounds.

** This mine extends, in a manner, over the whole of the province which bears its name, the capital of which is the town of Guarochiri, distant from Lima 17 leagues, and from Tarma 28. It belongs to the intendency of Lima.

ed. Our commerce in corn carries us to the ports of Chile; with Guayaquil we carry on a traffic in timber, &c. and, lastly, we make a few voyages to Chiloe, Juan-Fernandes, Valdivia, and Panama. We navigate with economy and with ease; but are deficient in the scientific part, deriving no aid whatever from astronomy. Those who have the charge of our trading vessels, have no skill beyond imitation; the hydrographical charts which are consulted, are, on many accounts, defective; and the situation of the coasts is more parallel than it is represented. On another hand, the fogs which almost constantly hover over the land, and hide it from the navigator's view, oblige him to make a circuitous course, by which his voyage is considerably delayed.—Until about the year 1780, it was a source of vast riches to a commercial house to keep a vessel of its own employed in the coasting trade: but in proportion as mercantile speculations have been since multiplied, the price of freightage has been lowered, and the profits are divided among a greater number of adventurers.

The fishery is a branch of industry exclusively belonging to the Indians, situated on the coast; but they are destitute of skill, and being, at the same time, unprovided with proper boats and fit instruments, keep constantly within sight of the coast, venturing but a very small distance to sea. Hence arise the scarcity and dearness of fish, so often experienced in this city, and in all the places along the coast. A few years ago several boats of a

particular construction were built, for the purpose of fishing throughout the whole extent of these seas; but this scheme was shortly afterwards abandoned. The lakes of this kingdom afford but few fishes. Were the Indian to resort to them, he would put no price on the fruit of his labours. Content with his maize, and his dried pease, he considers the multiplicity of foods as a voluntary surrender of health and life.

Agriculture might, generally speaking, be made to supply our wants, insomuch than our subsistence ought not to be so precarious as it is, nor so dependent on foreign aid. In the vallies adjacent to this capital, wheat may be cultivated with the greatest success. The bad uneven roads, together with the delays and expense of carriage, almost entirely obstruct the internal circulation of this kingdom, and are so many obstacles in the way of agriculture. The valley of Jauja* affords many proofs in support of this proposition: the facility with which it sends its maize and other products to the mine of Pasco, keeps it in a most flourishing condition.

The natural history of Peru is fertile in prodigies. All the systems which have been formed in Europe, on this subject, are capable of a thousand amplifications, whenever their theories shall be applied to our natural productions. The mountains of Chanchamayo, Huanuco, Lamas,† &c. are so many privileged spots of nature with respect to the surprizing gaudiness and beauty of their productions. The circumstances of several hu-

* This valley, the circumference of which is not more than 17 leagues, is extremely populous—Atunjauija is the capital of the province of that name, dependent on the intendency of Tarma, from which it is distant 10 leagues, and from Lima 38.

† The mountains of Chanchamayo are distant from Tarma 25 leagues. Those of Huanuco are distant from Lima about 80 leagues. The mountains of Lamas extend from Tefé, the boundary of the Portuguese possessions, to the confines of the intendency of Truxillo.

mid and hot climates, and the dread of the hostile Indians who inhabit them, have contributed to withhold from us much information on this head: there is, however, a great scope for investigation and description; and accordingly the natural history of Peru will occupy no small space in our periodical journal.

Knowledge is general throughout Peru, as well on account of the natural quickness and penetration of its native inhabitants, as through their fondness for study. In whatever does not require a meditated combination of ideas, the fair sex has commonly the advantage over ours. The Royal University of St. Mark, and, proportionably, the other universities of this kingdom, form a centre of literature which diffuses an abundant light to the whole of the circumference. Under their auspices, the moral and philosophical sciences have latterly made an incredible progress, and make it constantly proud of being received in the palace of the supreme authority; they have found their way into all the schools, and from thence diffused themselves rapidly into every order of the state.

May this philosophical light be so constant and efficacious, as to influence and ameliorate the common system of education! Education, taken in the sense which comprehends the whole of the kingdom, is that alone in which Peru is, in some measure, defective. A good taste, urbanity, and a social disposition, are the hereditary qualities of every Peruvian.

We have thus fulfilled our promise, by giving an idea of Peru in general terms, not subject to a determinate point either of history or of literature. It is a prefatory introduction; or, if we may be permitted to adopt the phrase, a leisure composition, which will give us a greater facility in speaking of

the kingdom of Peru, in the whole series of the *MERCURIES*, according to the variety of the subjects which may present themselves.

Russian Mode of treating Frozen Limbs.

[From Eton's Survey of Turkey.]

ON this occasion I cannot help mentioning the treatment of parts frozen in Russia, not by the surgeons, but by the common people, the success of which I was an eye-witness to in several cases, as well as to the failure of the common mode of treating frozen parts by the most able surgeons of the army. I shall simply state the facts I relate to.

After Ochakof was taken, I received into my subterranean lodging as many prisoners as it would contain, all of whom were either wounded or had a limb frozen. Among them were two children, one about six, and the other about fourteen years of age: the latter had one of her feet frozen to the ankle; the other all the toes, and the sole of one of her feet. The second day the parts appeared black, (the first day they were not much observed.) The French surgeon, whom Prince Potempkin had sent for purposely from Paris, and who was a man of note, ordered them to be constantly bathed with warm camphorated spirits; the elder was removed to the hospital, when a mortification began; the younger I kept, and, as we removed into winter quarters, I carried the child along with me. The mortified parts separated, the bones of the toes came off, and, after a considerable time, the sores healed. I should have said the surgeon was for immediately amputating both the limbs.

In a subterranean room, not far from mine, were several women,

K

whose feet had been, in a like manner, frozen; but as no surgeon attended them, the Russian soldiers and waggoners undertook the cure. It was also the second day when they applied their remedy, and the parts were perfectly black. This remedy was goose-grease, with which the parts were smeared warm, and the operation often repeated: their directions were, never to let the parts be dry, but always covered with grease. The consequence was, that, by degrees, the circulation extended lower down, and the blackness decreased, till, last of all, the toes were only discoloured, and, at length, circulation was restored to them.

I can account for this no otherwise, than that the fat kept the pores shut, and prevented the air from promoting putrefaction: in the mean time the vessels were continually absorbing part of the stagnated blood, till, by degrees, the whole circulation was restored. It is known, that extravasated and stagnated blood will remain a long time in the body without putrefying, if it be not exposed to the air. I conclude also, that in these cases of frost, the mortification first begins on the surface, which is in contact with the air.

I only meant, however, to relate facts, and leave it to others to account for them.

This is a general practice of the peasants throughout all Russia; but if a part is discovered to be frozen, before the person comes into a warm room, the frost may be extracted by plunging the part into cold water, or rubbing it with snow till the circulation returns.

Sixth Sense of Bats.

SPALLANZANI having destroyed the eyes of bats, and set them at liberty in an apartment,

observed that they could guide themselves from one place to another as before. They avoided every obstacle that was presented to them, and even passed through rings which he placed before them: and for this reason he asks, "May not these animals possess a sense with which we are not acquainted, and which may supply that of sight? or, May not smell be sufficient for that purpose?"

Jurine is of opinion that it is hearing which supplies the above want. He filled with wax one of the ears of those animals which he had deprived of sight, and he observed that they flew about with difficulty: when he filled both their ears, they could not fly at all.

Method of preparing a cheap Substitute for Oil Paint, as durable as that prepared with Oil, and free from any bad smell. From the Bibliotheque Physico-économique, 1792.

IT often happens that people do not choose, or cannot employ oil-painting in the country, either because it does not dry soon enough, and has an insupportable smell, or because it is too dear. M. Lüdicke employed, with the greatest success, the following method for painting ceilings, gates, doors, and even furniture.

The Process.

Take fresh curds, and bruise the lumps on a grinding-stone, or in an earthen pan or mortar, with a spatula. After this operation, put them in a pot with an equal quantity of lime well quenched and become thick enough to be kneaded; stir this mixture well, without adding water, and you will soon obtain a white-coloured fluid, which may be applied with as much facility as

varnish, and which dries very speedily. But it must be employed the same day, as it will become too thick the day following.

Ochre, Armenian-bole, and all colours which hold with lime, may be mixed with it, according to the colour which you wish to give to the wood; but care must be taken that the addition of colour made to the first mixture of curds and lime may contain very little water, else the painting will be less durable.

When two coats of this paint have been laid on, it may be polished with a piece of woollen cloth or other proper substance, and it will become as bright as varnish. It is certain that no kind of painting can be so cheap: but it possesses, besides, other advantages: in the same day two coats may be laid on and polished, as it dries speedily and has no smell. If it be required to give it more durability, in places exposed to moisture, do over the painting, after it has been polished, with the white of an egg: this process will render it as durable as the best oil-painting.

Method of discovering Adulterations with Metals in Wine. From Bibliothéque Physico-économique.

THE property which liver of sulphur (alkaline sulphures) and hepatic air (sulphurated hydrogen) possess of precipitating lead in a black form, has been long ago made public; and this property has been employed to determine the quality of wines by means of the liquor probatorious Wirtembergensis, or Wirtemberg proving liquor.

But, in trying wines supposed to have been adulterated, this proof does more hurt than service, because it precipitates iron of the same colour as the pernicious lead. Many wine-merchants, therefore, of

the greatest respectability, rendered by these means suspected, have been ruined.

There was wanting, then, a reagent, which should discover in wine those metals only which are prejudicial to the health of man.

The following liquor precipitates lead and copper in a black form, and arsenic of an orange colour, &c. but does not precipitate iron. The last, which is not noxious, and rather salutary to the constitution, frequently gets into wines by accident.

Method of preparing the Proving Liquor.

Mix equal parts of oyster shells and crude sulphur in a fine powder, and put the mixture into a crucible. Heat it in a wind furnace, and increase the fire suddenly, so as to bring the crucible to a white heat, for the space of fifteen minutes. Pulverise the mass when it is cool, and preserve it in a bottle closely stopped.

To prepare the liquor, put 120 grains of this powder and 120 grains of cream of tartar (acidulous tartarite of pot-ash) into a strong bottle; fill the bottle with common water, which boil for an hour, and then let it cool; close the bottle immediately, and shake it for some time: after it has remained at rest to settle, decant the pure liquor, and pour it into small phials capable of holding about an ounce each, first putting into each of them 20 drops of muriatic acid. They must be stopped very closely with a piece of wax, in which there is a small mixture of turpentine.

One part of this liquor, mixed with three parts of suspected wine, will discover, by a very sensible black precipitate, the least traces of lead, copper, &c. but will produce no effect upon iron, if it contains any of that metal. When the pre-

cupitate has fallen down, it may still be discovered whether the wine contains iron, by saturating the decanted liquor with a little salt of tartar (tartareous acidulum of pot-

ash), by which the liquor will immediately become black.

Pure wines remain clear and bright after this liquor has been added to them.

Miscellaneous Articles of Literary and Philosophical Intelligence.

WE learn that a volume of *SERMONS*, by the Rev. John Clarke, D. D. late of Boston, is now in the press in that town, and will shortly be published.

Proposals have been issued for publishing, by subscription, two volumes of *SERMONS*, by the Rev. Jeremy Belknap, late of Boston. These proposals have not, it is said, met with that encouragement which was expected. The publication, however, will be made in a few weeks.

A volume of *DISCOURSES* has lately issued from the press of Messrs. Hudson and Goodwin, of Hartford, by the Reverend Dr. Trumbull, of North-Haven, which are intended to exhibit "A systematical demonstration of the divine origin of the scriptures of the Old and New Testaments."

A new *ROMANCE*, written by the author of *Mervyn, Wieland, Ormond, &c.* and entitled, "Edgar Huntley, or the Sleep-Walker," is now printing in Philadelphia.

At a commencement held on the 6th day of June, 1799, at the University of Pennsylvania, the degree of Doctor of Medicine was conferred on the following gentlemen, who submitted Inaugural Dissertations to the examination of the Medical Faculty on the following subjects:

Mr. Edw. Brailsford, of Charleston, South-Carolina—An Experimental Dissertation on the Chymical and Medical Qualities of the *Nicotiana Tabacum* of Linnæus, commonly known by the name of Tobacco,

Mr. John H. Foushee, of Virginia—An Essay on Strictures in the Urethra.

Mr. Wm. G. Chalwill, of Tortola—A Dissertation on the Source of Malignant Bilious, or Yellow Fever, and the Means of preventing it.

Mr. James Norcom, of North-Carolina—On Jaundice; containing Observations on the Liver, and some of its Diseases.

Mr. Washington Watts, of Virginia—An Inquiry into the Causes and Nature of the Yellow Fever.

Mr. Arthur May, of Pennsylvania—A Dissertation on Sympathy.

Mr. Robert J. King, of Maryland—An Essay on Blisters.

We are assured that a new publication on the *history of North-Carolina* is in great forwardness, and will be put to press in the course of the ensuing winter. The author is H. Williamson, M. D. and LL. D. long a resident of that State, and for many years employed in the public concerns. We have reason to believe this performance will be a valuable addition to the stock of American literature.

An animal of the *Bos* family, said to be the Pygarg of Deuteronomy xiv. 5. has been exhibited lately in New-York. The creature is a female, and answers very well to the Bison of 2 Pennant's *Arctic Zoology*. The proprietor said she was brought from Russia, though we think it more probable she is a native of some northern part of the American continent.

For some time past that large and singular bird the *Cossowary*, has been shown in this city: it was brought from Japan, by the way of Batavia. The common descriptions of writers are correct enough, as there is little chance of confounding this remarkable animal with any other of the feathered race.

The following living plants have been lately received by Dr. Hosack, Professor of Botany in Columbia College, from Dr. Anderson, superintendant of the Botanic Garden at St. Vincents.

1. Bread-fruit (*Artocarpus Incisus*).
2. Arrow Root (*Maranta Arundinica*).
3. Cinnamon (*Laurus Cinnamomum*).
4. Mango (*Mangifera Indica*).
5. Vanilla (*Epidendrum Vanilla*).
6. Lemon Grass (*Andropogon Schoenanthus*).
7. Sago (*Cycas Circinalis*).
8. *Dracæna Ferrea*.
9. Turmeric (*Curcuma Longa*).
10. Galengal (*Kæmpferia Galangal*).
11. Gum Arabic (*Mimosa Nilotica*).
12. Liquorice (*Glycyrrhiza Glabra*).

This present was accompanied with about 300 kinds of seed of the most valuable plants.

The Professor of Botany has also lately received from Dr. Smith, President of the Linnæan Society, a large collection of some of the most valuable of the recent publications on botany.

The Chymical Society of Philadelphia, beside a variety of other minerals, from different parts of the United States, have lately received a specimen of the golden or auriferous pyrites from Virginia, from ten penny weights of which, three grains of gold, twenty-four carats fine, have been extracted.

A quantity of manganese has been sent to the society, from the county

of Albemarle, where it is found in abundance. The mineral now retails in Philadelphia, at the rate of eleven-pence per pound. It is consumed in this country principally by potters. It is used in Europe, in bleaching, and in the manufacture of glass.

A variety of the sulphate of barytes, called *Lapis Hepaticus*, accurately described by Cronstedt, as the *Lieberstein*, or *Liverstone*, of the Germans and Swedes, has also been forwarded to the society from the same place.

This mineral almost always accompanies the best metallic ores, and is considered by mineralogists as a happy presage of finding them. According to the celebrated Becher, it is a certain indication, *aut præsentis, aut futuri metalli*.

It is hoped that the importance of mineral substances in agriculture and manufactures, will induce the farmers, and other gentlemen of the United States, to attend to the mineral products of their fields, and send them to the Chymical Society of Philadelphia, where they will be accurately analyzed, free of expense. By this means many valuable discoveries may be made, and we may become acquainted with the operations of nature in this part of the globe.

Professor Rush has just published "Three Lectures upon Animal Life, delivered in the University of Pennsylvania."

The celebrated KOTZEBUE, who, it was reported, had been dismissed by the Emperor of Germany from his Court and from the appointment he held as *Poet Laureat* and Director of the Imperial Theatre, has, it seems, been slandered by his enemies, who have fabricated the supposed reasons for his dismissal. The facts are these:—

"M. VON KOTZEBUE had, for various reasons, but most probably of the same nature as those which

induced him to quit the Russian service, *voluntarily* applied to the emperor for his dismissal. This request FRANCIS complied with; and, besides expressing the fullest satisfaction with his conduct, granted KOTZEBUE a pension for life, of one thousand florins, or about one hundred guineas; with liberty to spend it in whatever country he pleased.—To fill this important office, the emperor has appointed the learned M. Von RETZER, and the Aulic Secretary, Von ESCHRICH, who in future, in conjunction with the three oldest members of the Imperial Theatre, are to form a committee, and divide the former functions of KOTZEBUE. It is confidently reported, that this celebrated dramatist has already left Vienna, and is now on his way to England.

The two first numbers of a splendid and highly-finished work have lately been published at Leipzig, which claims the attention and patronage of every lover of the arts. The publishers are the respectable booksellers Voss and Co. and the work is written with great taste by the celebrated senator, Dr. STEIGLETZ, under the title, "*Designs of Ornamental Architecture, or Representations of actual and ideal Buildings, with plans and elevations, in a series of one hundred engraved plates: To which is added, a Treatise on the beauty of the Art.*" Second number (in German) consisting of thirteen plates royal folio.—All the drawings are from the pencil of Mr. Schwender, and are engraved by Citizens Gaitte, Piquet, and Ransonnette, of Paris, and Mr. Boettger, of Leipzig. Eight numbers, containing from twelve to thirteen plates each, will conclude this magnificent work: the subscription price for each is five rix dollars, or about one guinea English.

The second volume of "*A Universal Dictionary of Commercial Geography*, by PEUCHET, is just published at Paris. The remaining two volumes are shortly to follow.

There has just issued from the Parisian press, a translation of Guthrie's *Geographical Grammar*, by Citizens NOEL, Ex-Ambassador to the Batavian Republic, and SOULES, author of the History of the American Revolution, and translator of Blair's Lectures. It is published in three volumes, 8vo. 2100 pages, closely and elegantly printed, with an Atlas in 4to. of 34 maps. This is not merely a translation, there being nearly a third part of new matter, particularly an account of the events that have occurred in the different parts of the world since the last edition of Guthrie, in 1796; the divisions, ancient and modern, compared with the new Republics; the last partition of Poland; the discoveries of *Peyrouse* and *Vancouver*; a succinct theory of the earth and rivers from *Buffon* and *Lametherie*; a concise analysis of *Busching* and *Zimmerman* on Europe; and of the German and English Geographers *Bruns*, *Fabri*, *Brooke*, *Gordon*, &c. &c. besides several later writers: a Treatise on Foreign Exchange; a History of the Banks and Commercial Companies of Europe; a Table of the Weights and Measures of different nations, compared with those of France, old and new. There are also several maps that are not in the original work. Upon the whole, with the corrections, additions, and improvements, which this standard book has received from the learned translators, it may be well considered one of the most complete systems of geography that has ever appeared; and it is without exception the cheapest, the price being only 21 livres, or 24 livres with coloured maps.

P O E T R Y.

THE OATH OF HANNIBAL.

*From Silius Italicus—Book 1st.**Translated by R. ALSOP.*

BY birth distinguished, by his prowess
 more,
 The first command renown'd Hamilcar
 bore:
 The chief indignant view'd his country's
 doom,
 Disgrac'd and humbled by the arms of
 Rome,
 And sought each means assiduous to in-
 flame
 His son with hatred of the Roman name,
 When Reason first her glimmering dawn
 display'd,
 And first his lisping tongue imperfect
 words essay'd.

Just in the centre of the city stood
 (In the dark bosom of a sacred wood,)
 A fane in honour of Eliza rear'd,
 By Carthage with religious awe rever'd.
 Here baleful yew and larch obscur'd the
 ground,
 And cypress cast a mournful gloom
 around:
 No cheerful sun, in noontide splendour
 bright,
 Through the close branches pour'd en-
 livening light,
 But gloomiest night eternally display'd
 Her sable pinions o'er the dreary shade.
 Here, as 'tis said, the love-distracted
 queen
 Clos'd, of a hapless life, the weary scene:
 The mournful statues of her royal race
 (Great Belus' progeny) adorn'd the place.
 With Belus, Agenor, the nation's fame,
 And ancient Phenix, whence Phenicia's
 name:
 Sad Dido stood beside her much-lov'd lord;
 Beneath her feet was plac'd the Dardan
 sword.
 To Gods celestial and infernal rais'd,
 An hundred altars in long order blaz'd:
 Here, in dishevell'd hair, the hoary priest,
 In black attire and Stygian garments drest,
 Invok'd aloud, with wild terrific yell,
 The powers Ætnean, and the Gods of
 Hell.

Then the torn earth, oppress'd with terror,
 shook;
 Through the dun shade dire screams of
 horror broke,
 Sulphureous lightnings gleam'd a pallid
 ray,
 The kindling altars flash'd with sudden
 day,
 Then spectres, shrieking, shot athwart
 the gloom,
 Compell'd by songs of magic from the
 tomb;
 Eliza's statue trembled from its base,
 And briny drops bedew'd the marble
 face.

These dark recesses stern Hamilcar
 fought,
 Hither, with him, young Hannibal he
 brought:
 With anxious care the sire his son sur-
 vey'd,
 No change of hue the signs of fear betray'd,
 Nor wild Massylian priests, with fearful
 howl,
 Nor barb'rous rites dismay'd his steadfast
 soul;
 Nor the dire threshold, wet with human
 gore,
 Nor Stygian flames, evok'd by magic lore.
 With fond paternal kisses then he prest
 The godlike boy, and clasp'd him to his
 breast,
 And thus bespoke,—“The sons of Troy
 disgrace,
 With stipulations vile, our Tyrian race;
 But should opposing fate deny to me
 My country's honour from this stain to
 free,
 Thine, O my son! shall be the future
 praise,
 Against proud Rome destructive wars to
 raise;
 E'en now her youth with dread thy ris-
 ing wait,
 And Latian mothers mourn their off-
 spring's fate.”
 By such incitements fir'd, he fierce re-
 ply'd,—
 “When age maturer shall my councils
 guide,
 By land, by sea, with sword and wasting
 flame,
 Will I pursue that loath'd, detested name:

By thee, O Mars, terrific God of war!
By thy dread manes, mighty queen, I
swear!

Tarpeian rocks and Alpine cliffs in vain
Shall lift their heights my vengeance to
restrain;

No faith of treaties shall my arms confine,
No holy reverence for the powers di-
vine,

No terms my settled enmity controul,
Or to soft peace dispose my vengeful soul."

Then fell a fable victim to the power,
The tri-form'd Goddess of the midnight
hour;

The priest explores, with *auruspical* art,
The limbs yet quivering and the beat-
ing heart;

With skilful eye the various signs surveys,
Then thus, aloud, the will of fate dis-
plays.

"What routed bands o'er pale Ætolia
pour

What lakes are smoking with Idean gore?
Far off, what rocks immense to heaven
ascend,

On whose aerial heights thy camps de-
pend?

And lo, the pass is gain'd!—Dire havoc
reigns,

And fires Sidonian light Hesperian plains;
O'er men and arms, in crimson billows
roll'd,

I see the Po a bloody shroud unfold!
Here shall thy victor arms, 'mid fields
of blood,

Raise thy third trophy to the thundering
God.

Alas! what sudden clouds in tempest
roll,

While flames terrific kindle o'er the pole?

Events of import vast the Gods prepare,

And Jove in thunder rushes to the war.

More to disclose the Queen of Heaven
denies,

And veil'd in deepest shades the future
lies."

DESCRIPTION OF HANNIBAL.

From the same—By the same.

SWIFTLY his furious course he thi-
ther prest;

Far gleam the fatal lightnings of his crest,
So, scattering bloody fires, the comet's
blaze,

With flaming train, barbarian realms
dismay;

Its torch portentous, in continual stream,
Wide o'er the heavens emits a ruddy
beam;

From the red star terrific sparklings
hurl'd,

Menace destruction to the astonish'd
world.

Before him standards, arms, the embat-
tled host,

Swiftly recede in wild confusion lost;

Both armies tremble—from his massy
shield

A glancing splendour lightens o'er the
field;

His javelin's fiery point sends forth afar
A dreadful radiance through the ranks
of war.

So the Ægean sea, rough, swelling high,
Heaves its tumultuous billows to the sky,
When wintry Caurus howls, with hide-
ous roar,

The uplifted waters tumbling to the
shore,

With dread the shivering sailors stand
aghast;

Hoarse sounds the surge, and, madden-
ing with the blast,

Wide o'er the trembling Cyclades is cast.
Not flaming brands, nor all the missile
showers,

Incessant pouring from the hostile towers;

Nor rocks from engines thrown, avail to
stay

Or check the ardent chief's resistless way,

